

**Seventy-sixth Annual Meeting**  
**OF THE**  
**American**  
**Institute of Instruction**

**NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT**

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**PROCEEDINGS, CONSTITUTION**  
**LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS**  
**AND ADDRESSES**



*Published by order of the Board of Directors*

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**BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS**  
**American Institute of Instruction**  
**1906**

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1906

## EXECUTIVE OFFICERS.

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### President.

WALTER E. RANGER,  
Providence, R. I.

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WM. C. CRAWFORD,  
596 Cambridge Street, Allston District, Boston, Mass.

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Norwich, Conn.



**Seventy-sixth Annual Meeting**  
OF THE  
**American Institute of Instruction**

NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT  
JULY 9-10-11-12, 1906



**GENERAL SESSIONS**

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**Monday Evening, July 9.—Woolsey Hall**

8 to 10

Brief Organ Recital.....Prof. H. B. Jepson, Yale University Organist  
Vocal Solo.....Dr. Charles Zimmerman

**Prayer.** Rev. William W. McLane, D. D.

**Addresses of Welcome.** His Excellency, Governor Henry Roberts, Hartford; His Honor, Mayor John P. Studley, New Haven; Arthur M. Wheeler, Durfee Professor of History, Yale University.

**Address in Response.** Dr. A. E. Winship, Editor *Journal of Education*, Boston.

**Address.** "Changes of Fifty Years." Hon. Charles D. Hine, Secretary State Board of Education, Hartford.

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**Tuesday Morning, July 10.—Woolsey Hall**

9 to 10.30

Piano Solo.....Miss Antoinette Brett  
Duet.....Miss Pearl Young and Miss Grace E. Walker  
Contralto Solo.....Miss Walker  
Soprano Solo.....Miss Young  
Accompanist, Miss Clara Jepson

**"The Teaching of Commercial Geography."** Albert G. Keller, Assistant Professor of the Science of Society, Yale University.

**"Disciplinary Values of Education."** Frederick W. Hamilton, President Tufts College.

## Seventy-sixth Annual Meeting

## Tuesday Evening.—Woolsey Hall

8 to 10

Soprano Solo.....Miss Anna Frances Treat

## NEVIN (Ladies) QUARTET.

Miss Martha Springer.....First Soprano

Miss Anna Frances Treat.....Second Soprano

Miss Bertha L. Humie.....First Alto

Miss Grace E. Walker.....Second Alto

Accompanist, Miss Clara Louise Jepson

"Educating the People for International Arbitration." Wm.  
H. P. Faunce, President of Brown University.

"Some Recent Educational Developments in England." Kate  
Stevens, Teachers' Training College, London.

"The Arts and Crafts in the Public Schools." Henry T.  
Bailey, Editor "The School Arts Book", and formerly  
State Supervisor of Drawing for Massachusetts.

## Wednesday Morning, July 11.—Woolsey Hall

9 to 10.30

One Thousand Children from the New Haven Public Schools, under the  
direction of Supervisor Benjamin Jepson.

## PROGRAM

"My Country, 'tis of Thee."

"Praise the Lord".....*Austrian Hymn*

Three Part Song.....To be sung at sight

"Dear Native Land".....*German Hymn*

"Red, White and Blue."

Three Part Song.....To be sung at sight

"God Ever Glorious".....*Russian Hymn*

"Union Dixie."

Three Part Song.....To be sung at sight

"The Star-Spangled Banner".....With semi-chorus of boys

Exercises in Dictation.....By the entire chorus

Patriotic School Song—Air, "Onward, Christian Soldier."

With grand organ accompaniment by Prof. H. B. Jepson

At the piano, Mr. Harry Cowles

NOTE.—The songs for sight reading were written for the occasion by  
Dr. Horatio Parker, of Yale University. They had never before been  
heard or seen by the children. The same may be said in reference to the  
exercises in dictation.

"The Individual versus the Class." George C. Chase, Presi-  
dent of Bates College.

"The Need for Public Trade Schools." Flavel S. Luther,  
President of Trinity College.

**Wednesday Afternoon.—Woolsey Hall**

4.30 o'clock

**Organ Recital.** Benjamin Jepson, Supervisor of Music in the Public Schools of New Haven.

**Wednesday Evening.—Woolsey Hall**

8 to 10

TEMPLE (Male) QUARTET. Without accompaniment

Mr. Frederick Maurer.....First Tenor

Mr. Thomas H. Williams.....Second Tenor

Mr. Rufus Shepard.....First Bass

Mr. Charles Uren.....Second Bass

Bass Solo .....Mr. L. W. Sullivan

**"On the Trail of the Troublesome Boy."** Carroll G. Pearce, Superintendent of Schools, Milwaukee.

**"What Service Does the Public Require of the Public's Schools for the Public's Children?"** His Excellency, the Honorable George H. Utter, Governor of Rhode Island.

A pleasant feature of the evening was the introduction, by President Ranger, of three of the most prominent members of the Institute—George A. Walton, whose first meeting was in 1846; William A. Mowry, whose first meeting was in 1851, and David N. Camp, the senior of both in years. As each was presented, the audience rose. Each made a brief and happy response to this recognition.

**Thursday Morning, July 12.—Woolsey Hall**

9 to 10.30

Baritone Solo .....William E. Morgan  
Violin Solo.....Miss Mollie Stanford  
Soprano Solo.....Miss Leola Lucey

**General Subject:—City School Problems.**

**"The Problem of Rights at School."** Walter H. Small, Superintendent of Schools, Providence.

**"The Problem of the Incurrigible Boy."** Frank H. Beede, Superintendent of Schools, New Haven.

**"The Problem of the Backward Pupil."** Andrew W. Edson, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

**Thursday Evening.—Woolsey Hall**

8 to 10

Glee and Anthem Selections, by Trinity Episcopal Boy Choir of New Haven, under the direction of Prof. Harry Read

**"How the Superintendent May Correct Defective Class-Work and Make the Work of the Recitation Teach the Pupil How to Prepare His Lessons Properly."** Hon. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

**"Moral Training in the Public Schools."** Hon. Nathan C. Schaeffer, President of the National Educational Association, and State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

**DEPARTMENT SESSIONS****Department of School Administration**

President, CHARLES H. KEYES, Supervisor of Schools, Hartford  
Secretary, GEORGE F. TRACY, Superintendent of Schools, Danbury

**Tuesday, July 10.—Woolsey Hall**

10.45 to 12.45

**"The Mutual Responsibilities of Principal and Superintendent."** Clarence F. Carroll, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.

**"Fundamentals in School Supervision."** Hon. William T. Harris, Washington, D. C.

**Thursday, July 12.—Woolsey Hall**

10.45 to 12.45

**"Interstate Comity in Education."** Charles D. Hine, Secretary, State Board of Education, Hartford, Conn.

**"The Relation of Theorist and Practitioner in School Supervision."** Dr. Henry Suzzallo, Stanford University, Cal.

**"The Primary Responsibilities of the Superintendent."** Hon. Nathan C. Schaeffer, President of the National Educational Association, Harrisburg, Pa.

## Department of Rural Education

President, KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD, President Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.

Secretary, H. D. HEMENWAY, Instructor in School Garden Work, Woodland Farm Camp School, Westchester, Conn.

### Tuesday Morning, July 10.—Marquand Chapel

10.45 to 12.45

**"The Significance of the Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education."** Hon. Walter E. Ranger, Commissioner of Public Schools, Providence, R. I.

**Discussion.** Opened by Frank Fuller Murdock, Principal North Adams Normal School, Massachusetts.

**"The Standard Rural School."** Hon. Frank H. Damon, Superintendent of Schools, Hampden, Me.

### Wednesday Morning, July 11.—Marquand Chapel

10.45 to 12.45

**"Have the Principles of Agriculture a Legitimate Place in the Curricula of the New England Public Schools?"** Hon. Mason S. Stone, Superintendent of Education, Montpelier, Vt.; William P. Brooks, Director Massachusetts Agricultural Experiment Station, Amherst, Mass.

(a) **"The School Garden as an Instrument of Sound Education."** W. A. Baldwin, Principal State Normal School, Hyannis, Mass.

(b) **"Preparation of Teachers for School Garden Work."** H. D. Hemenway, Westchester, Conn.

## Department of Public School Finance

President, ALICE E. REYNOLDS, Supervisor of Primary Schools, New Haven, Conn.

Secretary, HARRY HOUSTON, Supervisor of Penmanship, New Haven

### Tuesday, July 10.—Osborne Hall, Room A-1

10.45 to 12.45

**General Topic: The Wages of Teachers.**

**"Wages and Merit."** Calvin N. Kendall, Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.

**"Some Points of a Salary Campaign."** Payson Smith, Superintendent of Schools, Auburn, Me.

**"Wages and Merit."** Clarence F. Carroll, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.

**Discussion.** Dr. Albert E. Winship.

## Department of School and College Athletics

President, ALLISON E. TUTTLE, Principal High School, Bellows Falls, Vt.  
Secretary, FORREST BROWN, Principal High School, Amesbury, Mass.

### Tuesday Morning, July 10.—Osborn Hall, Room A-2

10.45 to 12.45

"Cost and Efficiency of Athletics in Colleges." James H. McCurdy, International Y. M. C. A. Training School, Springfield, Mass.

Discussion. W. G. Anderson, Yale University; George Wittich, Normal School, N. A. Gymnastic Union, Milwaukee, and others.

## Department of Peace Instruction

President, MRS. LUCIA AMES MEAD, Chairman of Peace and Arbitration  
Department of the National Council of Women, Boston  
Secretary, WM. C. CRAWFORD

### Tuesday, July 10.—Dwight Hall

10.45 to 12.45

"Teaching of History." Wm. A. Mowry, President Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute, Hyde Park, Mass.

"The Observance of Peace Day in the Schools." Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Chairman Education Committee Association of Collegiate Alumnae.

Discussion. Professor Arthur M. Wheeler, Yale University.

## Department of Home and School

President, MRS. CAROLINE S. ATHERTON, Chairman Conference Committee on Education, Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs, Roxbury, Mass.

Vice-President, MRS. WALTER STOKES IRONS, 1904-1906 President Rhode Island State Federation of Women's Clubs, Providence, R. I.

Secretary, MRS. W. H. CUMMINGS, Chairman Education Committee, Connecticut Branch, Association of Collegiate Alumnae, Plantsville, Conn.

### Wednesday, July 11.—Dwight Hall

10.45 to 12.45

"The Schools and the Public." Arthur D. Call, Supervisor of Schools, Hartford, Conn.

**"Women's Organizations and the Schools."** Miss Mary M. Abbott, Chairman Education Committee, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Watertown, Conn.

**"Women's Clubs and the Higher Education"** Miss Laura D. Gill, Dean of Barnard College, Columbia University, New York.

**Discussion.** Opened by Hon. Nathan C. Schaeffer, President National Educational Association, Harrisburg, Pa.

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**Thursday, July 12.—Dwight Hall**

10.45 to 12.45

**"What Can Parents' Associations Accomplish?"** Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Chairman Education Committee, Boston Branch, Association Collegiate Alumnae, Boston; Mrs. Frances Sheldon Bolton, President Connecticut Mothers' Congress, New Haven.

**Discussion.** Mrs. Frederick B. Street, East Haven, Conn.

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**Department of Civic and Moral Training**

President, CHARLES S. CHAPIN, Principal Normal School, Providence  
Secretary, HORATIO B. KNOX, Instructor, Normal School, Providence

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**Wednesday, July 11.—College Street Hall**

10.45 to 12.45

**"Moral Education as Illuminated by Herbart."** Professor Walter Ballou Jacobs, Brown University, Providence.

**"Education for Civic Righteousness."** Horatio B. Knox, Instructor in History, Rhode Island Normal School.

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**Thursday, July 12.—College Street Hall**

10.45 to 12.45

**"Honor Among School Children."** Robert Clark, Elizabeth, New Jersey.

**"The School City."** Ralph Albertson, Secretary National School City League.



### Department of Normal Training

President, MARCUS WHITE, Principal State Normal Training School,  
New Britain, Conn.

#### Wednesday, July 11.—Osborn Hall, Room A-3

10.45 to 12.45

**"A Teacher's Obligations to Himself."** George I. Aldrich,  
Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Mass.

**Discussion.** George C. Purrington, Principal State Normal  
School, Farmington, Me.

**"The Training of Teachers."** Henry Suzzallo, Professor of  
Education, Leland Stanford University.

**Discussion.** Charles H. Judd, Professor of Psychology, Yale  
University.

### Department of Secondary Education

President, JOHN L. ALGER, Prin. Vermont Academy, Saxtons River, Vt.  
Secretary, ALVAN A. KEMPTON, Prin. Brigham Academy, Bakersfield, Vt.

#### Wednesday, July 11.—Osborn Hall, Room A-1

10.45 to 12.45

**"Inspirational and Disciplinary Studies in Secondary Schools."**  
Henry A. Tirrell, Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.

**"English in the Secondary Schools."** Edward H. Smiley,  
Principal High School, Hartford.

**Discussion.** Dr. Thomas M. Balliett, New York; David W.  
Hoyt, Providence.

#### Thursday July 12.—Osborn Hall, Room A-1

10.45 to 12.45

**"Commercial Education."** H. S. Person, Tuck School of  
Administration and Finance, Dartmouth College.

**Discussion.** B. E. Merriam, Superintendent of Schools,  
Bellows Falls, Vt.

**"Industrial Education from the Standpoint of the Manu-  
facturer."** M. W. Alexander, General Electric Company,  
Lynn, Mass.

**"Industrial Education in the Secondary Schools."** Gustaf  
Larsson, Principal Sloyd Training School, Boston, Mass.



### Department of School and Library

President, GEORGE S. GODARD, Librarian Connecticut State Library,  
Hartford, Conn.

Secretary, Mrs. BELLE HOLCOMB JOHNSON, of the Connecticut Public  
Library Committee

#### Thursday, July 12.—Osborn Hall, Room A-2

10.45 to 12.45

**"Providence Public Library and the City Schools."** William  
E. Foster, Librarian Public Library, Providence, R. I.  
(Paper read by S. P. Willard, Connecticut State Board of  
Education.)

**"The Ideal Library."** C. L. Simmons, Superintendent Public  
Schools, Westfield, Mass.

**"Connecticut System of Grants to School and Public Libraries."**  
Mrs. Belle Holcomb Johnson, State Visitor and Inspector  
Connecticut Public Library Committee.

**"Duty of Normal Schools to Train Teachers in Library  
Work."** W. I. Fletcher, Librarian, Amherst College,  
Amherst, Mass.

**"Patriotic Societies and the Public Library."** Mrs. Sara T.  
Kinney, Regent, Connecticut Society D. A. R.

**"The Basis of Taxation for Public Libraries."** James H.  
Canfield, Librarian, Columbia University, New York.

## BUSINESS PROCEEDINGS.

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During the General Sessions the following business was transacted :

### MONDAY, JULY 9.

A regular meeting of the Board of Directors was held at the close of the first session of the American Institute of Instruction. It was voted to levy the usual assessment of \$1.00 each upon all active members. It was also unanimously voted to recommend to the Institute that the constitution be amended as follows :

1st. In Article II.—Members, Section 1, add the word “permanent”, and change “three” to “four”, so that the section shall read as follows :

“The members of the Institute shall be divided into four classes, styled active, associate, permanent and honorary.”

2nd. Add a new section as follows, numbered “6”: “Permanent members shall consist of all ex-presidents of the Institute.”

3rd. Change the number of section “6” to section “7”.

4th. In Article IV.—Officers, Section 1, add the words “permanent members”, so that the section shall read :

“The officers of the Institute shall be a President, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer, an Assistant Treasurer, Permanent

Members and twelve Counsellors, all of whom shall constitute a Board of Directors."

5th. In Article IV.—Section 2, insert the words "except the permanent members", so that the section shall read :

"The officers, except the permanent members, shall be elected annually by ballot, and shall continue in office until their successors shall be chosen."

TUESDAY, JULY 10.

At the morning session President Ranger appointed the following committee :

On Nominations: Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.; George C. Purington, Farmington, Maine; Melville C. Smart, Littleton, N. H.; John L. Alger, Saxtons River, Vt.; Audobon L. Hardy, Amherst, Mass.; Walter H. Small, Providence, R. I.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 11.

On motion of Dr. Albert E. Winship it was

*Voted*:—That the period for the General Session of the morning be lengthened to give time for two speakers, and that the hour for beginning Department Sessions be correspondingly postponed.

THURSDAY, JULY 12.

At the evening session, Treasurer Alvin F. Pease made a financial report of the Portland, Maine, meeting, showing a balance in the treasury of \$2,718.53. This report, having been approved by the Auditing Committee, was accepted and adopted.

*Voted*:—That the amendments to the Constitution recommended by the Board of Directors, in accordance with a vote passed at a meeting held Monday, July 9, 1906, be adopted.

The following-named persons were elected to active membership :

Belle Davis, Principal Southwest School.....	Hartford
Lillian Conant, Principal Noah Webster School .....	"
Mary Marchant, Principal Wethersfield Ave. School, .....	"
Louis H. Stanley, Principal Lawrence St. School .....	"
Franc Potter, Principal New Park Ave. School.....	"
Helen McClunie, Principal Charter Oak Ave. School, .....	"
Mrs. Charles H. Keyes .....	"
Maud V. Keyes .....	"
Sarah E. Bunnell .....	"
Julia A. Stevens .....	"
Mrs. Nellie B. Washburn.....	"
Mary A. Riley .....	"
Elizabeth M. Guinan.....	"
Mrs. Mary H. Graves .....	"
Jessamine Woods .....	"
Mary Linehan.....	"
Winthrop Buck.....	"
Sara Lane .....	"
M. Elizabeth Tate .....	"
Katherine Stokes.....	"
Mary E. Barber.....	"
Ann Kennedy .....	"
Ellen C. Dwyer .....	"
Lila A. Fields.....	"
Mary A. Maloy .....	"
Minnie B. Chamberlain .....	"
Nellie T. Cody.....	"
Florence Smith .....	"
Anna A. Bubser .....	"
Katherine L. Newton .....	"
Mary J. Kane .....	"
Victoria B. Jamieson .....	"
Mary I. Patterson.....	"
Emily E. Campbell.....	"
Anne O'Loughlin .....	"
Ella A. Parish .....	"
Harriet P. McPherson.....	"
Caroline L. Gridley .....	"
Mrs. Sarah A. Stevens .....	"
Walter J. Freeman.....	"
Cora J. Seaver .....	"
Rose M. Dwyer .....	"
Anna L. Langdon.....	"
Kate P. Safford .....	"
Lily L. Nangle.....	"
George S. Tracy.....	Danbury, Conn.
Mrs. Mary R. Davis .....	Bridgeport, Conn.
Mary M. Abbott.....	Watertown, Conn.

The President announced the names of places from which invitations to hold the next convention had been received.

*Voted*: — That invitations for holding the Convention of 1907 be referred to the Board of Directors.

Dr. William A. Mowry, for his committee, presented the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted.

The American Institute of Instruction at its Seventy-Sixth Annual Meeting in the city of New Haven, July, 1906, desires to put on record its high appreciation of many courtesies received, and to express its grateful thanks to the people of New Haven and others for substantial aid by which this session of the Institute has attained high rank as an educational convention.

*Resolved*, First of all, that we hold in hearty appreciation the kindness and liberality with which the Corporation of Yale University has placed at our disposal this magnificent Woolsey Hall and the other halls for our meetings; and that we hereby express our grateful thanks to Mr. F. H. Beede, Chairman of the Local Executive Committee, and all the members of that committee for their laborious assistance, and our thanks to the Chairman and every member of the following Committees for like service :

Committee on Accommodations,  
Committee on Bureau of Information,  
Committee on Halls,  
Committee on Press,  
Committee on Excursions,  
Committee on Advertisements,  
Committee on Music,  
Committee on Hospitality,  
Committee on Advance Membership.

and all others who have labored to advance the interests of the meeting.

*Resolved*, That our thanks are due, and are hereby tendered, to the various railroad corporations and officers for reduced rates of transportation and all courtesies rendered by them.

*Resolved*, That we express our unfeigned gratitude to all the speakers, who have instructed and entertained us in a manner so successful and so meritorious — not a dull speech among them, and no platitudes.

*Resolved*, That we convey to the musicians our cordial thanks for the skillful way in which, with such consummate success, they have enlivened the exercises and entertained us, and especially to the children and their leader, Mr. Jepson, for the delightful entertainment of Wednesday morning.

*Resolved*, That we highly appreciate the courtesies extended to us by the New Haven Country Club and the management of the White City.

*Resolved*, That we hereby recognize the kindly favors of the citizens of New Haven, so cordially extended to us, especially in opening their houses, and otherwise accommodating the members in attendance.

*Resolved*, That we have put on record our high appreciation of the important, active, and honorable work done for the cause of education in the United States and the world by our retiring United States Commissioner of Education, Hon. William Torrey Harris, LL. D., who for seventeen years has held that high office, and during all that time has largely added honor to our country in the eyes of all nations.

*Resolved*, That for his high educational ideals, sound philosophy, varied learning, and wide and successful experience, we honor him as our ideal in all educational affairs; and that for his broad urbanity, purity of heart, sympathy and brotherly kindness everywhere and always we cherish the strongest affection for him. May he long continue in this life, enjoying that ease and dignity of which Cicero wrote so charmingly.

*Resolved*, That we welcome to the office of Commissioner Hon. Elmer E. Brown, who by careful scholarship and varied experience in educational matters has won the high regard of the entire country. We hereby pledge him the cordial support of the teachers and educators of New England.

*Resolved*, That the Institute emphasizes the importance of industrial education, and believes that it should have a place in every efficient system of schools. The Institute heartily commends the Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education.

*Resolved*, That we recognize with cordial appreciation the disposition manifested in many places to advance the salaries of teachers and school officers, on account of the greatly increased cost of living expenses, and we feel constrained to express the earnest hope that this good work will still go on, as it is evidently greatly needed; since, while wages of various classes have been greatly advanced, yet the salaries of teachers and school officers have not been increased in proportion to those of laborers in other fields.



*Resolved*, That the recent developments of dishonesty in high places and the increase of crime in different directions make it painfully evident that it is the plain duty of every teacher skillfully, persuasively and persistently to train the youth of our country in honesty, integrity, and uprightness. That it is absolutely necessary that the schools of all grades and in all places should be nurseries of pure morality.

*Resolved*, That we accept with alacrity the increased burden placed upon our schools by the annual influx of nearly a million persons from foreign lands, and we pledge that their children shall receive cordially our best endeavors to fit them to become intelligent and worthy American citizens, remembering that God hath made of one blood all the nations to dwell upon the whole face of the earth; hence we all are brethren.

*Resolved*, That the time has come for all civilized nations to consider the limitation of armaments and to prepare to substitute arbitration for warfare; and hence, we respectfully request the President of the United States to recommend to the Second Hague Conference, when it shall assemble, measures that shall provide for general limitation of armaments, the establishment of a general arbitration treaty, and a world parliament to meet at stated intervals to confer upon the mutual interests of the nations.

*Resolved*, That the teachers of all schools should strive to make their teaching accord with the present trend of the enlightened sentiment the world over in opposition to wars and in favor of the peaceful settlement of international disputes and difficulties by arbitration, and that especially in history and literature the principles of peace and justice should be carefully inculcated.

*Resolved*, That the President of this Institute be requested to appoint a committee to consist of Nathan C. Schaeffer of Pennsylvania, Chairman, Walter E. Ranger of Rhode Island, and five others to prepare a plan for organizing the teachers of the United States in an active campaign for teaching international peace, and that this committee be requested to present such plan to this Institute and to the National Educational Association at the next annual meeting of these bodies.

WM. A. MOWRY, CHAIRMAN,  
*Committee on Resolutions.*

*Voted*:—That the Report of the Committee on Resolutions be accepted and adopted.

In accordance with the last resolve of the above Resolutions, President Ranger appointed the following committee "for organizing the teachers of the United States in an active campaign for teaching international peace":

Nathan C. Schaeffer.  
Walter E. Ranger.  
William A. Mowry.  
Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews.  
Homer B. Sprague.  
Mrs. Lucia Ames Mead.  
Mrs. George H. Purington.

*Voted*:—That a vote of thanks be extended to Hon. Charles D. Hine for his efficient work in arousing interest in the Convention throughout the state, for securing a large number of advance memberships, and for many courtesies extended to the officers of the Institute and others serving the Association.

Mr. Charles H. Keyes, for his committee, presented the following nominations of officers for the ensuing year:—

#### OFFICERS FOR 1907.

PRESIDENT—Walter E. Ranger, Providence, R. I.  
VICE-PRESIDENT—F. H. Beede, New Haven, Conn.  
SECRETARY—William C. Crawford, Boston, Mass.  
TREASURER—Alvin F. Pease, Malden, Mass.  
ASSISTANT SECRETARY—Edwin C. Andrews, Ansonia, Conn.  
ASSISTANT TREASURER—Allison E. Tuttle, Bellows Falls, Vt.  
STATE VICE-PRESIDENTS—*Maine*: Elizabeth Hall, Lewiston;  
George C. Purington, Farmington; W. E. Russell, Gorham.  
*Massachusetts*: A. K. Whitcomb, Lowell; Clarence



A. Brodeur, Westfield; J. G. Edgerly, Fitchburg. *New Hampshire*: Charles W. Bickford, Manchester; Henry C. Morrison, Concord; E. L. Silver, Portsmouth. *Rhode Island*: W. H. Holmes, Westerly; H. W. Lull, Newport; Horatio B. Knox, Providence. *Vermont*: John L. Alger, Saxtons River; A. A. Kempton, Bakersfield; B. E. Merriam, Bellows Falls. *Connecticut*: Charles H. Judd, New Haven; W. I. Twichell, Hartford; Anna D. Pollard, Southington. *New York*: Thomas F. Balliet, New York City; Andrew W. Edson, New York City; Mary S. Snow, Brooklyn.

**COUNSELLORS**—Charles D. Hine, Hartford, Conn.; W. B. Jacobs, Providence, R. I.; George I. Aldrich, Brookline, Mass.; C. H. Morrell, Randolph Centre, Vt.; Charles S. Chapin, Providence, R. I.; E. R. Woodbury, Saco, Me.; James E. Klock, Plymouth, N. H.; Sarah Dyer Barnes, Providence, R. I.; Ellor Carlisle Ripley, Boston, Mass.; Alice F. Reynolds, Concord, N. H.; Kate E. Morrill, Montpelier, Vt.; Elizabeth J. Cairns, Hartford, Conn.; Elizabeth Sheppard, Nashua, N. H.; D. W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I.

**EX-PRESIDENT COUNSELLORS**—John Kneeland, Roxbury, Mass.; Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.; William A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass.; George A. Walton, West Newton, Mass.; Homer B. Sprague, Cambridge, Mass.; J. Milton Hall, Providence, R. I.; Ray Greene Huling, Cambridge, Mass.; George H. Martin, Lynn, Mass.; W. W. Stetson, Auburn, Me.; C. W. Parmenter, Cambridge, Mass.; A. E. Winship, Somerville, Mass.; George E. Church, Providence, R. I.; M. S. Stone, Montpelier, Vt.; W. F. Bradbury, Cambridge, Mass.; Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.; Walter E. Ranger, Providence, R. I.

*Voted*:—That the report on Nominations be accepted, and that one ballot be cast for the Association.

This having been done, the nominees were declared elected.

A regular meeting of the newly-elected Board of Directors was held at the close of the evening session, President Ranger in the chair.

The Secretary stated that the object of the meeting was: First, to appoint a Committee of Arrangements for the meeting of 1907; and second, to take some

action upon the printing of the Book of Proceedings of the present year.

*Voted:* — That the appointment of a Committee of Arrangements be left for further consideration at a proposed meeting to be held early in the fall.

*Voted:* — That a Book of Proceedings be printed and distributed to the members, and that the President, the Secretary and the Treasurer constitute a committee for bringing out the volume.

WM. C. CRAWFORD,  
*Secretary.*

## Members of the American Institute of Instruction

### Honorary Members

Camp, David N. .... New Britain, Conn.  
Haddon, Henry C. .... Newton, Mass.

### Permanent Members

In order of service as Presidents.

By Constitutional provision all ex-Presidents are Permanent Members.

Kneeland, John .....	Roxbury, Mass.
Bicknell, Thomas W. ....	Providence, R. I.
Mowry, William A. ....	Hyde Park, Mass.
Walton, George A. ....	West Newton, Mass.
Sprague, Homer B. ....	Cambridge, Mass.
Hall, J. Milton .....	Providence, R. I.
Huling, Ray Greene .....	Cambridge, Mass.
Martin, Hon. George H. ....	Lynn, Mass.
Stetson, Hon. Wm. W. ....	Auburn, Me.
Parmenter, Charles W. ....	Cambridge, Mass.
Winship, Albert E. ....	Somerville, Mass.
Church, George E. ....	Providence, R. I.
Stone, Hon. Mason S. ....	Montpelier, Vt.
Bradbury, Wm. F. ....	Cambridge, Mass.
Keyes, Charles H. ....	Hartford, Conn.
Ranger, Hon. Walter E. ....	Providence, R. I.

### Active Members

Members are requested to notify the Secretary of errors or omissions.

#### MAINE.

Baker, Maude N. ....	Auburn
Bennett, Myron E. ....	Sanford
Benson, Fred .....	Westbrook

Booth, Minnie E.....	Auburn
Bridgham, A. Maude.....	Auburn
Bryant, H. H.....	Waterville
Burleigh, S. A.....	Rumford Falls
Chaffee, Thomas C.....	North Berwick
Chase, Albro E.....	Portland
Chase, George C.....	Lewiston
Coan, Anna.....	Auburn
Conary, Wiley C.....	Bluehill Falls
Coombs, Tyler M.....	Vinal Haven
Corliss, Lewis H.....	Bridgton
Corthell, W. J.....	Calais
Davis, Evelyn H.....	Gardiner
Davis, W. E.....	Sanford
Fickett, M. Grace.....	Gorham
Finch, Adelaide V.....	Lewiston
Freeman, Frederick W.....	Bath
Gleason, Mrs. C. E.....	Bridgton
Goddard, H. C.....	Auburn
Halliday, Katharine.....	Gorham
Johnson, Beryl M.....	Saco
Kaler, James O.....	South Portland
Locke, J. S.....	Saco
Lowell, Florence W.....	Auburn
Mallett, W. G.....	Farmington
Marshall, Farnsworth G.....	Augusta
Meserve, Clara H.....	Kennebunk
Packard, B. E.....	Turner
Paine, George E.....	North Anson
Powers, William L.....	Gardiner
Prescott, Augusta L.....	Auburn
Purinton, G. C.....	Farmington
Richardson, Albert F.....	Castine
Russell, A. C.....	Kents Hill
Russell, W. E.....	Gorham
Sands, Alice.....	Lewiston
Sargent, W. E.....	Hebron
Smith, Payson.....	Auburn
Smith, J. A.....	Auburn
Stetson, Lilla A.....	Auburn
Stetson Mary L.....	Auburn

Stevens, Ada A.	Auburn
Stone, Gertrude L.	Gorham
Taylor, Josiah W.	North Wayne
Thompson, Miss S. A.	Rumford Falls
Tilton, Charles E.	Bangor
Tozier, Delmont T.	Solon
White, Mary J.	Portland
Wood, Mabel V.	Lewiston
Woodbury, E. R.	Saco

## NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Abbot, Blanche N.	Laconia
Amen, Harlan P.	Exeter
Bickford, Charles W.	Manchester
Chase, Alice M.	Portsmouth
Cook, Charles F.	52 Pleasant Street, Concord
Cummings, W. H.	Claremont
Eaton, Guy H.	Lebanon
Folsom, Channing	Newmarket
Klock, James E.	Plymouth
Knapp, Allen H.	Portsmouth
Libbey, Fred S.	Berlin
Morrison, Hon. Henry C.	Concord
Reynolds, Alice F.	Concord
Robertson, Samuel W.	Rochester
Sanborn, Henry C.	Franklin Falls
Sheppard, Elizabeth	Nashua
Silver, Ernest L.	Portsmouth
Smart, Melville C.	Littleton
Walker, Isaac	Pembroke
Wallace, Charles L.	Lisbon

## VERMONT.

Alger, John L.	Saxtons River
Alger, Mrs. J. L.	Saxtons River
Bartley, Joseph D.	Burlington
Beebe, W. A.	Morrisville
Chittenden, M. D.	Fairfax
Dempsey, Clarence H.	St. Johnsbury
Griffin, Delia J.	St. Johnsbury
Ham, Ernest G.	Randolph
Huntoon, Eliza A.	Wallingford

Kempton, A. A. ....	Bakersfield
Leavenworth, P. R. ....	Castleton
Mathewson, O. D. ....	Barre
Merriam, B. E. ....	Bellows Falls
Morrill, C. H. ....	Bakersfield
Morrill, Kate E. ....	Montpelier
Palmer, Sara T. ....	Johnson
Stannard, H. J. ....	Barton
Stewart, Jennie B. ....	Randolph
Thomas, Isaac. ....	Burlington
Tucker, Marguerite E. ....	Brattleboro
Tuttle, Allison E. ....	Bellows Falls
Wheeler, Henry O. ....	Burlington

## MASSACHUSETTS.

Adams, Charles F. ....	Spencer
Adams, Enoch C. ....	West Newton
Aldrich, George I. ....	Brookline
Arnold, Sarah Louise ....	Boston
Badger, Abner A. ....	East Weymouth
Baker, A. G. ....	499 Main Street, Springfield
Baldwin, William A. ....	Hyannis
Barnes, Thomas H. ....	773 Broadway, South Boston
Barrows, Anna ....	17 Yarmouth Street, Boston
Bates, Herbert H. ....	Cambridge
Bates, William C. ....	Cambridge
Billings, John D. ....	Cambridge
Boydén, Albert G. ....	Bridgewater
Brayton, Percy S. ....	West Medford
Brick, Francis S. ....	Uxbridge
Briggs, Alton E. ....	Chelsea
Brockway, C. E. ....	West Springfield
Brodeur, Clarence A. ....	Westfield
Bryant, W. H. H. ....	29 Beacon Street, Boston
Bunker, Alfred ....	27 Juniper Street, Roxbury
Burdett, J. H. ....	21 Chestnut Street, Dedham
Carfrey, J. H. ....	Wakefield
Champney, Abbie A. ....	102 Pembroke Street, Boston
Clark, W. A. ....	7 Water Street, Boston
Clough, B. M. ....	Easthampton
Cole, Albert S. ....	North Dartmouth

Cook, F. H.	Leominster
Cowell, Hervey S.	Ashburnham
Cox, E. J.	Newtonville
Cragin, William N.	Bedford
Crawford, William C.	Cambridge Street, Allston, Boston
Daniell, M. Grant	Roxbury
Dickerman, Quincy E.	Boston
Dustan, Dana M.	Worcester
Easton, Norman S.	Fall River
Eaton, George T.	Andover
Edgerly, Joseph G.	Fitchburg
Edmund, Gertrude	Lowell
Eliot, Charles W.	Cambridge
Fletcher, Grenville T.	Northampton
Fuller, Robert J.	Palmer
Gowing, Fred	Philadelphia
Gordy, W. F.	Springfield
Greenough, James C.	Westfield
Guss, Roland W.	North Adams
Hall, Charles P.	Shelburne Falls
Hardy, Audobon L.	Amherst
Hatch, William E.	New Bedford
Hayward, Harriet S.	Brockton
Hazard, Caroline	Wellesley
Heath, D. C.	Boston
Holland, Sara J.	East Taunton
Hutchinson, S. C.	Cochituate
Jackson, Charles S.	Lynn
Jackson, Joseph	Worcester
Jacoby, Asher J.	Milton
Kelley, Augustus H.	East Boston
Leadbetter, Florence E.	Roslindale
Learned, Alonzo K.	Holden
Leary, James H.	Charlestown
Lewis, Homer P.	Worcester
Libbey, George W.	Boston
Lingham, C. H.	Boston
Marsh, Frank M.	Fairhaven
McConkey, Bertha M.	Springfield
McDonald, James R.	254 Washington Street, Boston
McDonald, Mrs. Etta A. B.	West Medford



Metcalf, R. B.	Boston
Metcalf, Robert C.	Winchester
Monroe, Will S.	Westfield
Moore, George H.	Boston
Murphy, George E.	Dorchester
Nash, Louis P.	Allston
Nickerson, Fred H.	Melrose
Nolen, A. Eugene	Fitchburg
Orr, William	Springfield
Owen, Lincoln	Boston
Page, Caleb A.	Methuen
Parker, Henry C.	40 Chute Street, Reading
Parker, Walter S.	Boston
Parkinson, William D.	Waltham
Pease, Alvin F.	Malden
Peaslee, Frank J.	Lynn
Perkins, John W.	Salem
Perry, Eugene A.	Malden
Pillsbury, Rev. John H.	Waban
Pitman, J. Asbury	Salem
Putnam, Walter L.	Danvers
Quirk, Charles E.	36 Union Park, Boston
Raub, Edgar L.	Dorchester
Reddy, Joseph A.	250 Cabot Street, Roxbury
Rich, Ruth G.	31 Windermere Road, Dorchester
Ripley, Mrs. Ellor Carlisle	Boston
Rugg, George	Princeton
Ryan, J. F.	120 Boylston Street, Boston
Seaver, Edwin P.	Waban
Simmons, Chas. L.	Westfield
Smith, Arthur W.	Adams
Smith, Hamilton I.	Boston
Southworth, Gordon A.	Somerville
Spalter, Frank B.	Winchenden
Stearns, Alfred E.	Andover
Tetlow, John	Boston
Thompson, Edgar E.	Worcester
Ward, W. Scott	Athol
Wheeler, U. G.	Everett
Wheelock, Lucy	Boston
Whitcomb, Arthur K.	Lowell



Whitcomb, C. T. C.....	Brockton
Wheeler, F. A.....	Monson
Whitehill, Edwin H. ....	Belmont
Whitney, Frank W.....	Watertown
Williams, H. R.....	South Braintree
Wightman, J. Lewis.....	Malden
Woodbury, Charles T. ....	Fitchburg
Worcester, John C.....	West Springfield

## RHODE ISLAND.

Almy, Valentine.....	Auburn
Baker, Benjamin.....	Providence
Barnes, Sarah Dyer.....	Providence
Chapin, Charles S.....	Providence
Crandall, D. Alva.....	Rockville
Eddy, William H. ....	666 Angell Street, Providence
Field, Mrs. Gertrude Rugg.....	Providence
Glover, C. Edward .....	Warwick
Harkness, Albert.....	Providence
Holmes, W. H. ....	Westerly
Horton, Lyman G. ....	East Greenwich
Hoyt, David W. ....	Providence
Jacobs, Walter B.....	Providence
Kingsley, Nathan G.....	Providence
Knox, Horatio B.....	Providence
Lull, H. W.....	Newport
Meador, Lewis H. ....	Providence
McFee, Frank E. ....	Woonsocket
Mowry, Joseph E. ....	Providence
Mowry, Wendell A. ....	Central Falls
Nye, Silas T.....	Natick
Peck, William T. ....	Providence
Small, Walter H. ....	Providence
Spratt, Frank A. ....	Providence
Sweeney, Ella L. ....	Providence
Winslow, Isaac O. ....	Providence

## CONNECTICUT.

Abbott, Mary M. ....	Watertown
Akers, Winfred C.....	New Britain

Ames, Charles L. ....	Hartford
Andrews, Edwin C. ....	Ansonia
Barber, Mary E. ....	Hartford
Beede, F. H. ....	New Haven
Bishop, Nathan L. ....	Norwich
Brackett, Frank A. ....	Hartford
Brewster, Elizabeth G. ....	Norwich
Bubser, Anna A. ....	Hartford
Buck, Winthrop ....	Hartford
Bunnell, Sarah E. ....	Hartford
Bush, Celeste E. ....	Niantic
Cairns, Elizabeth J. ....	Hartford
Call, Arthur D. ....	Hartford
Campbell, Emily E. ....	Hartford
Cartwright, W. O. ....	Wallingford
Chamberlain, Minnie B. ....	Hartford
Cody, Nellie T. ....	Hartford
Conant, Lillian ....	Hartford
Condon, Nellie K. ....	New London
Davis, Belle ....	Hartford
Davis, Mrs. Mary R. Gale, ....	City Normal School, Bridgeport
Deane, Charles W. ....	Bridgeport
Decker, Miss Catherine C. ....	New Britain
Dwyer, Ellen C. ....	Hartford
Dwyer, Rose M. ....	Hartford
Engel, Minnie O. ....	Hartford
Enright, Katherine J. ....	New London
Fenn, Ida J. ....	New Britain
Fields, Lila A. ....	Hartford
Fox, Kathryn ....	East Hartford
Freeman, Walter J. ....	Hartford
Glidden, Mabel V. ....	New London
Graves, Mrs. Mary H. ....	Hartford
Graves, S. I. ....	New Haven
Gridley, Caroline L. ....	Hartford
Guinan, Elizabeth M. ....	Hartford
Higgins, Mary ....	New Britain
Hine, Hon. Charles D. ....	Hartford
Holmes, Stanley H. ....	New Britain
Jamieson, Victoria B. ....	Hartford
Judd, Charles H. ....	New Haven

Kane, Mary J. ....	Hartford
Kennedy, Ann .....	Hartford
Keyes, Mrs. Charles H. ....	Hartford
Keyes, Maud V. ....	Hartford
Knowlton, Junius C. ....	New Haven
Lane, Sara .....	Hartford
Langdon, Anna L. ....	Hartford
Lillibridge, Jennie M. ....	Norwich
Linehan, Mary .....	Hartford
Magill, Anna J. ....	New Britain
Maloy, Mary A. ....	Hartford
Marchant, Mary .....	Hartford
McCarthy, Margaret C. ....	New Britain
McClunie, Helen .....	Hartford
McGill, Anna R. ....	New Britain
McPherson, Harriet P. ....	Hartford
Nangle, Lily L. ....	Hartford
Newton, Katherine L. ....	Hartford
Nichols, Wilbur F. ....	New Haven
O'Loughlin, Anne .....	Hartford
Parish, Ella A. ....	Hartford
Patterson, Mary I. ....	Hartford
Perkins, John R. ....	Danbury
Pollard, Anna D. ....	Southington
Potter, Franc E. ....	Hartford
Rice, William North .....	Middletown
Riley, Mary A. ....	Hartford
Safford, Kate P. ....	Hartford
Seaver, Cora J. ....	Hartford
Sellew, Merle E. ....	East Hartford Meadow
Smiley, Edward H. ....	Hartford
Smith, Florence .....	Hartford
Sneath, E. Hershey .....	New Haven
Stanley, Louis H. ....	Hartford
Stevens, Carrie A. ....	Norwich
Stevens, Julia A. ....	Hartford
Stevens, Mrs. Sarah A. ....	Hartford
Stokes, Katherine .....	Hartford
Strong, B. Norman .....	Hartford
Stuart, G. A. ....	New Britain
Tate, M. Elizabeth .....	Hartford

Tracy, George S. ....	Danbury
Twitchell, Willis I. ....	Hartford
Verplanck, F. A. ....	South Manchester
Vetter, Marguerite E. ....	Norwich
Washburn, Mrs. Nellie B. ....	Hartford
White, Marcus ....	New Britain
Wiard, Martin S. ....	New Britain
Wilkins, Blanche. ....	West Hartford
Woods, Jessamine. ....	Hartford

## NEW YORK.

Balliet, Thomas F. ....	New York
Edson, Andrew W. ....	New York
Hall, Elizabeth. ....	Schenectady
Lang, Ossian H. ....	61 East 9th Street, New York
Snow, Mary S. ....	Brooklyn

## NEW JERSEY.

Bennett, Miss Lydia A. ....	Leonia
Reed, George H. ....	Jersey City

## DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Cummings, G. J. ....	Washington
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## LOUISIANA.

Chambers, Henry E. ....	New Orleans
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## COLORADO.

Craig, Katherine L. ....	Denver
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**CONSTITUTION**  
OF THE  
**AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION**

Adopted August, 1879, as a substitute for the older one,  
and amended July, 1886, July, 1892, July, 1898, and July, 1906.

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**PREAMBLE.**

We, whose names are hereunto subjoined, pledging our zealous efforts to promote the cause of popular education, agree to adopt the following Constitution.

**ARTICLE I.—NAME.**

The society shall be known by the title of the American Institute of Instruction.

**ARTICLE II.—MEMBERS.**

1. The members of the Institute shall be divided into four classes, styled active, associate, permanent and honorary.

2. Any person interested in the cause of education and recommended by the Committee on Membership may become an active member by a major vote of the members present and voting at any regular meeting.

3. Only active members shall be empowered to vote and hold office.

4. Any active member who shall for the period of one year neglect to pay the annual assessment, shall by such neglect forfeit his membership.

5. Any person of good moral character may

become an associate member for the current year by paying the annual assessment.

6. Permanent Members shall consist of all ex-Presidents of the Institute.

7. Honorary members may be elected by the Institute on recommendation of two-thirds of the Directors present at any stated meeting of the Board.

#### ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

1. The Annual Meeting shall be held at such time and place as the Board of Directors shall appoint.

2. Special meetings may be called by the Directors.

3. Due notice of the meetings of the Institute shall be given in the public journals.

#### ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

1. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer, an Assistant Treasurer, Permanent Members and twelve Counsellors, all of whom shall constitute a Board of Directors.

2. The officers, except the Permanent Members, shall be elected annually by ballot and shall continue in office till their successors shall be chosen.

#### ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

1. The Secretary shall give notice of all meetings of the Institute and of the Board of Directors, and shall keep a record of their transactions.

2. The Treasurer shall collect and receive all moneys of the Institute, and shall render an accurate statement of his receipts and payments annually, and

whenever called upon by the Board of Directors, to whom he shall give such bonds for the faithful performance of his duty as they shall require. He shall make no payment except by the order of the Finance Committee of the Board.

3. The Board of Directors shall devise and carry into execution such measures as may promote the general interests of the Institute, shall have charge of the property of the Institute, shall be authorized to publish its proceedings and such papers relating to education as may seem to them desirable. They shall have power to fill all vacancies in their Board, from members of the Institute, and make By-Laws for its government. They shall have power to vote an annual assessment of one dollar upon the members, except honorary members, and to remit the payment thereof, when in their judgment it may seem wise to do so. They shall annually elect the following standing committees:

(1) A committee of six, who with the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, shall constitute the Committee on Membership, whose duty it shall be to report to the Institute from time to time the names of such persons as they may recommend for Membership.

(2) A committee of three on Finance, whose duty it shall be to audit the accounts of the Treasurer, and under the control of the Board of Directors, to draw orders on the Treasurer for the payment of charges against the Institute.

(3) A committee of three on Necrology.

4. Stated meetings of the Board shall be held on the first Saturday in January and on the first day of the Annual Meeting of the Institute,



## ARTICLE VI. — BY-LAWS AND AMENDMENTS.

1. By-Laws not repugnant to this Constitution may be adopted at any regular meeting.

2. This Constitution may be altered or amended by a vote of two-thirds of the members present at the Annual Meeting, provided two-thirds of the Directors present at the stated meeting shall agree to recommend the proposed alteration or amendment.

## BY-LAWS.

1. At all meetings of the Board of Directors, seven members shall be necessary to constitute a quorum to do business.

2. It shall be the duty of the Secretary, on application of any two Directors, to call special meetings of the Board at such time and place as the President may appoint.

3. Before each Annual Meeting the Treasurer shall have printed certificates of membership, numbered consecutively from one upward. These certificates shall be attached to stubs having the corresponding numbers printed thereon. The book of stubs left after the certificates of membership are detached therefrom shall form a part of the Treasurer's account, to be delivered to the Finance Committee, for the purpose of auditing the accounts of the Institute.



## ADDRESSES

at the Seventy-sixth Annual Meeting of the American Institute  
of Instruction, New Haven, Conn., July 9-12, 1906.

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### GENERAL SESSIONS.

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#### ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HIS EXCELLENCY, GOVERNOR HENRY ROBERTS,  
CONNECTICUT.

"It is a most agreeable and honorable privilege on behalf of the Connecticut State Board of Education to welcome you to this Commonwealth and we are fortunate in that you have determined to make your rendezvous this seat of learning, this leading institution of the country, Yale University, of which we are all justly proud. You have come into a state which from its earliest times has been anxious for education and in the mind of whose inhabitants the church and the school stood side by side, putting on a nearly equal level the uplifting of the soul and the discipline of the mind. This has been so fostered that today we have one institution of world wide fame and many others of more than state fame. The first written constitution known to the world was drawn up in and for Connecticut and was so perfect and complete that it has become the framework for the national constitution and also for the constitutions of other states. You have come to a state which appropriates more liberally for its schools than any

other state in the Union, considering its size. You are in a land of steady habits where the Connecticut Blue Laws were formerly in force, but where there are now broadening and uplifting laws. This is the commonwealth into which you have been invited and we offer you our hearty hospitality."

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### ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

HIS HONOR, MAYOR JOHN P. STUDLEY,  
NEW HAVEN.

In the early times the Indians occupied the woods of Connecticut and their civilization was of the crudest kind, but in 1638 a band of English people landed here, resolutely cleared some of the territory, and determined to build their homes in this section. Among the first of the edifices built was a free public school. Soon after others of many different kinds were built, one of which has grown into an institution, in the magnificent auditorium of which we are now gathered. Among those men who received their education in the public schools of New Haven and who have gained national prominence are Roger Sherman, General David Humphrey, Noah Webster, Eli Whitney, Charles Goodyear, Jedediah Morse, General Alfred H. Terry and Admiral Foote. Besides these there are the names of those educators familiar to all which she emblazoned on the windows of the university buildings, records of whom may be found in the rooms of the New Haven Colonial Society, which you are all cordially invited to visit. In New Haven you will find one of the first and leading factories of guns in the world. In New Haven the first telephone system

in the world was put in operation. Since the making of clocks in New Haven this industry has grown greatly and there have been many permanent improvements.

You will do well to look at the natural environment of the place. Visit East and West Rocks, and gaze upon the broad panoramas of sea, sky, mountains and valleys. At West Rock remember how the three regicides, Dixwell, Goffe and Whalley, spent several months hiding from the authorities. All this we offer you, and thank you for the great honor you confer on New Haven in holding your convention here.

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#### ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

PROFESSOR ARTHUR M. WHEELER,  
YALE UNIVERSITY.

As a teacher I am glad to meet my brother and sister teachers, members of a body who exert such an influence and who hold a position of such responsibility. The problem of education has been a prominent one from the beginning of the world until now. It is not wise to be cocksure about theories of teaching. The real teacher is like a poet, born, not made. An advance has been made in our educational system, and education is very necessary in a form of government like our own; an education which can lift a nation to a point where it can govern itself. But there is a defect in our system similar to the one in the Greek system. The Greek idea of perfection was, "A sound intellect in a sound body." The moral side was left out, and morally the Greeks never lifted themselves far above the brute. In France, when

learning was at its height, the Academy offered a prize for the best paper on "Has the introduction of arts and sciences contributed to the uplifting of the morals of the world?" Jean Jacques Rousseau won the prize and his answer was on the negative side of the question. This situation is repeating itself in this nation.

We are all stirred on account of revolting exposures in the actions of the great corporations. Trusts have been violated in the most shameful way. The seeking for wealth too rapidly is probably the cause of this. Some men go out of Yale thinking they cannot be square and still be successful. They wish to be rich as quickly as they can. They love big things because they are big.

We began with a big idea, that of pushing Great Britain off the continent; and some day we will be successful in this. We have Cuba and the Philippines. We have no natural boundaries today, but an ungovernable desire for more territory. What are the teachers to do? Awaken the individual conscience on the moral side. Impress the fact that there is but one standard of right in the world. It is worse for a nation to violate moral laws than for an individual, as there is no judicial tribunal to judge a nation. The Monroe doctrine is the very embodiment of national greed. It is one of our political theories, and we think it means it is our mission to carry our form of civilization to nations which are less developed than our own. No more crazy idea ever entered the mind of man. Our form of government would be the worst possible for some nations. Let us trust to example, not to force. Let us not propagate our religion by gun and sword, especially among nations who already have firm religious beliefs. It is necessary to take a brace on the moral side, and the teachers are able to help in this.

While here at Yale you will visit many interesting places to take up your attention. If you search carefully enough you may find the Yale spirit, which you will find good enough, if, like the original sin and the Monroe doctrine, you ever find what it really means.

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## RESPONSE TO ADDRESSES OF WELCOME.

DR. ALBERT E. WINSHIP,  
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, BOSTON.

Gentlemen: It is an honor, in the name of this historical association, to gratefully accept your hearty welcome, assuring you that it is sincerely appreciated, not alone because of what it signifies to you and to us, but because of what it implies in relation to your ancestors and to those who shall come after us.

We have come that we may enjoy and profit by the pure, noble, inspiring associations which have made your city eminent in the civic and industrial, literary, professional and religious life of America for two centuries.

We have no concern as to what we are to receive at your hands, but we are solicitous as to the return we make for this hospitality. Where your responsibility ends, ours begins.

Enneking, one of America's favorite impressionists in art, chose for his life work Boston, rather than the thrifty city of his birth and boyhood, because neither the price of a painting nor an award from the salon ever makes an artist. These may lead him to be more diligent and painstaking, but they do not inspire nor heighten genius, which can only come from

being in an atmosphere developed by the presence of masters with whom you can stroll and dine, discussing at leisure the significance of various schools of art, and in friendly spirit criticizing one's best endeavors.

If area was essential to such an atmosphere, if millions could kidnap it, then we should come here to mourn, rather than to rejoice; but the genius of leadership in art and literature, in science and invention, in civil and religious progress has not often chosen vast acres for its development. Greece and Rome, England and New England have been on the fringe of the continents, and the Man of Galilee saw but a few square miles of the lands that He was to transform by his teachings.

Run a line from Bowdoin to Dartmouth, Williams, Yale, Brown, and Harvard, and enroll the names of those born within this area who have mightily affected American life for good.

We can study the eye and the ear with the skill of the masters, but no one has a suspicion of what seeing and learning really are. The immortal in mind sees, hears, and thinks. This must ever be supreme over whatever is mortal or material. So we can know the highways and by-ways of this classic bit of New England between Bowdoin and Yale, but we cannot know the significance of the atmosphere that has given the world the sermons of Jonathan Edwards and the orations of Daniel Webster; the genius of Benjamin Franklin and Eli Whitney; the theological independence of Emerson and Channing and Parker, of Bushnell, Beecher and Brooks; the scientific insight of Gray and Dana; the journalistic instinct of Greeley and Bryant; the epoch making story of Harriet Beecher Stowe; the matchless hymn of Julia Ward Howe; the patriotic verse of Whittier and Lowell; the classic poetry of Longfellow and Holmes; the edu-



cational leadership of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, Mary Lyon and Mark Hopkins; and the almost divine foresight of John Harvard and Elihu Yale.

We are met here, as this American Institute of Instruction has met all about in New England for more than three-quarters of a century, that we may the better impart to our children the inheritance of the fathers, that we may here highly resolve that these worthies shall not have lived in vain, that this soil shall have a new birth in conscience and character, and that the faith, integrity, and devotion of the fathers shall not perish from the land.

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### CHANGES OF FIFTY YEARS.

HON. CHARLES D. HINE,  
SECRETARY, STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION,  
HARTFORD, CONN.

Few realize the extent of the changes which fifty years have wrought in elementary education.

The limited expenditure, the brief school terms, the inability of local officers to deal with education, can hardly be understood. Nothing but the revelations of reports or the incidental references of contemporary newspapers to what they take as a matter of course, can give an adequate vision of the weaknesses and limitations that, within the memory of men still living, prevailed in our schools. A considerable portion of the people were growing up without much schooling; schools were open not more than twenty weeks in a year; teachers were very meagerly paid; the buildings were not only inconvenient, but in many cases unthinkably inadequate; training for teaching was regarded



as visionary—knack and strength were the indispensable qualifications.

The legal disorder of former times has been brought to an end by statute or by customs. We provide elementary education in schools, maintained by taxation. Education as education, not the education of the poor, not free education for those who will take it; the education of all, obligatory upon all, without distinction of class or race or creed or sex, is a function of the state.

#### BUILDINGS.

Roughly speaking, there is a school place for every child, except in the crowded districts and in the larger cities. This does not mean that there should be more building of schoolhouses, even if our child population should continue stationary. Henceforth, building in cities and towns must be limited to coping with the shifting of people from one place to another and to the necessary substitution of new buildings for old ones. Reports show that in New England at least one-fourth of the present elementary school buildings are old and unsanitary, and must soon be rebuilt.

#### ATTENDANCE.

Passing from the buildings to their occupants, the children are more regular in their attendance than they have ever previously been. This is not satisfactory, however. If a few schools, some in very poor districts, can maintain an average attendance of 90 to 95 per cent. upon the enrollment, certainly the loose and lax attendance of some places cannot be viewed with contentment. If we consider the matter accurately, of the 150,000 children on our school rolls in this state, at least 25,000 are every day away from

school. What is more unsatisfactory, a great part of these absences are made by the same 5 or 6 per cent. of regular irregulars, a body of perhaps 25,000 or 30,000 children who, by habitually missing half the possible attendances, escape most of the educational discipline of the school. Much has been done. Much more will be accomplished when officers of the law do their sworn duty. By legislation we prevent the labor of young children during the years which ought to be spent in school.

#### QUALITY.

Even if we survey the whole of our public schools, educating nine-tenths of the children, we may, if we look at the high average of buildings and equipment, and the numerical superiority of trained teachers, safely challenge comparison, taken as a whole, with the schools of any part of the world. But the difference in real educational quality between the best and worst school in New England is enormous. No one except a few supervisors knows how unsatisfactory the worst schools are or what proportion the bad ones bear to the whole. If we make the division of schools into "excellent," "good," "doing some good," "worse than nothing," we find too many in the last class and we find in the class above that,—far too many. It is to be feared that our private schools are, in some cases, calamitously behindhand.

My estimate is that there are a quarter of our schools, containing perhaps 20 per cent. of the children, located, not in any one place, but here and there, in city and in country, that would be condemned as inefficient, either in respect to buildings or sanitation, to equipment, or curriculum, or to real success in child training. The cardinal duty is to find out exactly where and why it is true. We simply cannot afford

to leave a single one of our children to such a fate. We must maintain, multiply and improve, not merely the schools that have advantages of location and resources, but those to whom these are denied. To the end that everywhere education may be equal, the needs of the state must be met by the wealth of the state.

The real state and quality of secondary schools are far less accurately known than those of the elementary. All our information points to the conclusion that efficiency varies immensely from school to school. Most large high schools have good buildings and are provided with science laboratories and suitable equipment. Where a school falls below the mark, the weak point is the teaching. Generally in small schools there is a good salary provided for the principal, while the assistants in these schools are often paid less than is earned in the primary schools. Yet even the foregoing shortcomings do not disturb us as much as their curriculum and their spirit. Without entering into detail, it is important to maintain a high standard of scholarship, and every secondary school should attain a high level of efficiency in whatever line it undertakes. If any town wishes a high school, the buildings, equipment and curriculum should be made good, and in particular the science, history and language, including modern languages, should be especially attended to. The fact that the smaller towns are now dependent upon the larger for this kind of education emphasizes the foregoing requirements. But what is most needed is that an adequate scale of qualification be adopted for the teachers, so that all places may be filled by the appointment of men and women who have professional training and experience, and whose remuneration and prospects will be such as to secure stability and continuity of work. Construct what sort

of a ladder we will, the secondary schools can only be used by a small fraction of the population.

#### CAUSES OF INEFFICIENCY.

Wherever the instruction furnished is bad and inefficient, when tested by the best educational standard and achievement, one of five reasons can be assigned:

1. The teachers are incompetent or indifferent, making no effort to improve themselves by summer schools or special instruction.
2. The managers or school officers are only moderately and calmly desirous that either teachers or teaching shall be really good.
3. The funds are not adequate.
4. The schools are too small or too large to be efficient.
5. There are many schools and few children in a large area.

#### SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

Elevation of schools from "good" to "excellent" and from the lowest stages to the higher, brings every community face to face with the most pressing of educational problems,—the supply and training of teachers. The practice is extending of appointing to permanent service none but fully trained teachers. I have not at hand facts illustrating what this involves in all states; in this state, instead of graduating annually 250 from four normal schools, and receiving 50 more from outside the state, we ought to raise up and retain 500. All would find occupation at living wage. With the growing demand of the cities, life in which is so attractive, small towns and villages get less and less trained teachers from year to year. In the small places there is something approaching to a trained

teacher famine. It is only by the training of as many teachers as it needs, that the total supply of a state can be kept up. We must, somehow or other, perhaps prescribing different preparation and by compulsorily enlarging the number who attend normal schools, secure an additional output of at least 200 teachers annually.

There is no controversy about the foregoing statements as to the teachers, but there is no agreement as to whether we should add to the number of normal schools in which teachers are prepared. The establishment of more schools means a capital expenditure of hundreds of thousands of dollars. The question has been raised, whether to educated teachers universities can offer inducements. The difficulties seem to be, and here I do not speak with any voice of criticism, first, that universities or the university men do not understand the needs of the common schools, and, second, they are unwilling to give a degree or proper recognition of the training which such a course involves. Moreover, the instruction in universities and colleges does not reach so good an average as in the normal schools. The idea of learning for learning's sake has deluded many educated men; they do not possess that broad and humane view which organizes knowledge for the benefit of others. There ought to be some provision, different from any now existing, preferably in a university, where persons scholastically prepared, and tested by practice and experience, may profit by a broader curriculum than any normal school offers and where normal school courses receive due credit.

While we must add to the number that attend our normal schools, we may also organize rural school training centers, grasping eagerly at any opportunity of establishing in the country round about the facilities which will provide competent teachers.

But the provision of normal schools is only half the problem. Between leaving the elementary school and entering the normal school, future teachers have to be caught and taught. Secondary education is often non-productive so far as future teaching is concerned. The strict attention to text-books, to verbalization, the subjugation to the defunct languages, the neglect of applied science and of noble literature, their cramming often, and the frequent low standard of scholarship, do not prepare persons to become the intellectual guides and inspiration of all children who finish their education with the elementary school. Many of the recruits that come to the normal schools fall far short of the highest intellectual and scholastic standard. Fortunately, the high school courses are in process of transformation. To return to our original statement, the deficiency of persons ready to be trained is very great, and it is the greatest on the male side. The New England boy has, in fact, nearly ceased to enter the teaching profession. In all Connecticut last year, with close upon 1,100,000 people, the number of boys training for teaching in any kind of normal school did not reach four, and the number in our universities and colleges intending to make common school teaching a profession did not reach fifty.

#### UNIVERSITIES.

Finally, we reach the end of an education system,—the university,—in this and other New England states, in no wise formally connected with the public school system. By teachers' classes and summer schools they are beginning, or beginning to begin, to connect themselves with the streams which flow into them, instead of damming up the channel, but all are timorously shivering at the brink, as it were. Heretofore they



have extended a paternal supervision to the secondary schools and have put them into a strait-jacket admirably adapted to distort them. It cannot be said that they have put themselves in touch with the body of able and eager students, mostly women, who are expecting to teach. It cannot be said that they have anywhere put themselves even into bowing acquaintance with the normal schools. A working connection would benefit the universities and the state. When such a connection can be everywhere made, it will bring to the doors of universities hundreds of intending teachers. The consummation must wait the slow movement of those who do not feel the common school needs.

#### LOCAL CONTROL.

In New England, local control and maintenance have been happily preserved and strengthened.

Town and city authorities are endowed with the power and impressed with the duty, subject to a few conditions and practically no limitations, of equipping our communities with a complete educational organization. They may provide anything and everything they deem necessary in the way of education,—physical, mental, moral, elementary, secondary, manual, artistic, commercial, technology and tentatively professional,—frequently we cannot keep pace with the procession.

We are inclined to disparage local self-government as cumbrous, tardy and inefficient. Doubtless there is too much room for improvement in these respects. Yet, when all has been said, local officers usually come to the right practical conclusion; they do that which their most competent advisers would have wished them to do. They occasionally bungle and they occasionally



job, but this amounts to an exceedingly small fraction by the side of the bungling and the jobbing and the wasteful outlay of minutely centralized systems. The services of local self-government in preserving good political habits are a familiar theme, and we ought not to deny its services exactly in those conditions where they are most needed. The sense of public responsibility needs to be cultivated,—the habits of collective action for school objects should be kept clear and alert. The spirit of generous public co-operation should be kept alive, and the sense that the school represents a state and community duty, as each contributes, should be strengthened. We do not expect transcendental enthusiasm, but there is everywhere in urban communities a large amount of the capacity of public spirit. The effort should be to do all that is possible, whether that be much or little, to evoke and stimulate this spirit in that department where its absence is most mischievous.

#### PUBLIC OPINION.

We are absorbing the idea that efficiency of the people as a whole depends on making through the school system the most of the capacities of the whole population, which form the national resources as much as iron and coal. We depend for the maintenance of our pre-eminence in industrial position upon the brains of the people. Public education, therefore, has been removed from the region of philanthropy into the drier climate of business and public duty. In New England every child must be educated to the extent of a common school education. In a good school there is aroused in many, indeed in most, an indefinite quality which we call resourcefulness, inventiveness, or a capacity to meet new conditions by new devices. By our

scholarship or tuition system, we extend to all a varied system of secondary education. By evening schools and libraries we provide the widest possible continuation opportunities. We provide the best possible training for teachers. In fine, we organize the whole machine so as to increase knowledge and promote individual and collective efficiency.

#### LIBERALITY.

The taxpayers are showing great liberality and evidently want to see a due return for their money.

#### BENEFITS OF GOOD SCHOOL.

The real benefit of these schools is the training which unites present effort with after life. We may admit, if anyone contends, that all kinds of knowledge which school proffers are good, but that is most useful which stands in closest relation to the actual facts of life. There are two benefits which this kind of training confers. In matters where judgment is needed it enables the possessor to see the thing just as it is. In points of practice in his daily work, it will be an inspiration to do the thing as well as it can be done; if possible, better than it was ever done before.

#### NEW SUBJECTS.

In this connection we are led to throw the searchlight upon some of the subjects now found in schools. While teachers are inclined to deny or defend the intrusions, it is quite true that many new subjects have fastened themselves with strong clutch upon the course of study. These studies are additional to what were formerly regarded as the necessary subjects. They

have not lived long enough to determine whether they have promoted right thinking or industrial aptitude or an enlarged conception of social duty, but some of them have lived long enough to be in the way of what is admitted to be essential.

#### THE THREE R'S—THEIR UTILITY.

To secure this connection with after life we need simplicity,—compassable aims and directness. It is unreasonable to disparage the learning that comes from very simple elementary education. It is an education in itself. We may as well disparage gold and silver coin, which do not feed us nor make our bodies warm; yet sensible men covet them, not for themselves, but for the sake of that to which they give access; and so these three R's, with their reasonable expansion through the elementary course, happen to be the instruments of some of the most serious and delightful transactions of our lives. They are the indispensable condition of understanding life or taking a rational part in it, or simplifying any of its activities. To be in modern society without this mastery is like being in the market place without money. Sometimes a learned man—and this is particularly the attitude of academic superciliousness—lectures us for our struggle after common school thoroughness, and speaks of it as being superficial. It is not disrespectful, I hope, to say to such people that they remind one of those rich men who acquire a great fortune and then like to stand with their backs to the fire waving their hands graciously, telling some poverty-stricken hearer how little it is that money can do for a man and what supreme vanity is the laying up of much goods.

One of the greatest writers upon education reproaches us, saying "few will deliberately assert that

information is important and character unimportant," implying that elementary education does not establish character. Surely this antithesis is unreal. The possession of information is an element in character, and therefore shares the importance of character. There is a measure of truth in the statement that there has been a disposition to make education a panacea for all the evils of our present stage of social development, and that it is not, and never can be. But we may be very much in earnest about these common schools of ours without falling into any delusion of this kind. Knowledge is not character, and information is not good purposes and intentions. The whole root of the matter is that the faculty of using the instruments of knowledge is capable of producing a very marked and distinct effect upon character. The speaker lays very little stress upon the probability that wider instruction will lead to a decrease in crime. Its effect upon morals may possibly prove extremely slight and indirect, but it manifestly touches some portions of it. It adds certainly to the invaluable and far-reaching quality of self-respect. If the common schools do not reduce the number of criminals, they still improve the tone of those who are not criminals. Where nobody could write, a man might respect himself perfectly, however illiterate he was. But in an age where so much of the business of the world is translated by writing, and so much more of the business of the world is recorded by writing, and can only be understood, judged and utilized by those who can read, then a man or a woman who is expected to take part in this business, and yet is debarred by ignorance from taking an independent part, such a one is constantly vexed by shame and humiliation. Hence, this is one way in which instruction does indirectly affect character.

Then, again, the power in participating in national

or state affairs can never be more than nominal for one to whom the instruments of knowledge are either a mystery or at least an art, once distinctly approached and now daily fading away from numbed knowledge. The mastery of these instruments can only be acquired in youth, before the necessity of bread winning engrosses the day, and while the faculties are still fresh and unclouded.

The task which we have really to achieve is to turn our beliefs into the highest reality and to transform a system into an effective force. We are living under circumstances in which trained intelligence is growing every day to be a more indispensable condition of the individual and state success.

What are some of the common school means of doing this?

1. Attention to science in elementary schools.
2. Reading and studying history.
3. Acquiring the habit of reading truthful and sane literature.

#### SCIENCE.

Natural science, with very slight and frivolous exceptions, called nature study, is substantially excluded from the elementary education of the children in our public schools. This fact is so startling, in view of the advances of science, that we cannot avoid inquiring as to its cause. Why should there be, and continue to be, narrowness and lack of progress where we might expect breadth and progress? When the study of nature has accomplished such vast results, when we know that the conclusions of science stand in plain contradiction to those of untaught observation, when discoveries have been wonderfully applied to the uses of man, why is all rejected from our public schools? A defect of the human mind is to submit to tradition

and superstition, and this is one of the most perfect proofs that has ever been exhibited. How unwilling or unable to think are many very intelligent people!

#### TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

In former times industries were taught by apprenticeship, which afforded a good technical education, when industries were carried on by rule of thumb and not by scientific principles. Industrial occupations are acquiring the dignity of professions because they are based on science. Science has so extended its applications that the modern manufacturer stands at a great disadvantage when he is ignorant. The man of money, with his large factories, worked by machinery, has neither the time nor the inclination to bring up young men with a trained knowledge of the industry like the apprentices of olden times. A technical education in the grammar and higher stages of common school should now intervene and teach the workman, the foreman and the manager the scientific principles which lie at the base of their industries. It is true that manufacturers do not always encourage the intervention of science. They rest content when the workman is skillful in one minute division of his industry. But it is surely creditable to the men who work that they should wish to have an intelligent acquaintance with their whole industry and not remain satisfied with the small corner of the work allotted to them.

It is generally admitted that such education is good, but it is put far away. It should be brought home to the common school. It would seem that intelligent people would admit this without argument. The great advantage of directing primary and secondary education towards the pursuits and occupations of the people, instead of wasting it on dismal verbalization, is that,



while it elevates the individual, it at the same time gives promise of the prosperity of the collection of individuals, that is, the State. There are instances of states rich in natural resources of industries, yet poor in the knowledge of how to apply them. There are opposite examples of states utterly devoid of industrial advantages, which use science as a compensation for their lack of raw material. Spain is an example of the first class and Holland of the second.

But worst of all this is that the child without science has not obtained a conception of the physical world and his relation thereto. This is to be greatly lamented because most of the suffering results from violation of the fundamental principles of nature and ignorance of the laws of its operation. Outside of the evils of drink, to which so much hardship is attributable, the school curriculum does not hint that some of the greatest evils of life are traceable to mere physical agencies, removable by energy, patience and frugality.

#### HISTORY.

An important subject is history.

It is said that no one is so ignorant of the institutions under which he lives as an American. This is not an anomaly; it is a social danger in a country whose future, under democratic institutions, must depend on the intelligence of the people. To introduce constitutional history is not necessary or desirable, but to give children correct ideas of our actual institutions; to enable them to regard a newspaper as something more than a vehicle for baseball, fashions, or small gossip, is desirable and ought not to be impracticable.

It is said that this is all very fine in theory, but schools must keep their eyes on examinations, and that what tells are accurate and copious facts—the sort of



knowledge for which there is a great call upon memory. This is the old conception of history over again which sees in it little beyond names and dates. To be stuffed with these is not training for citizenship.

We do not want infant historians, not prodigies of memory, but boys and girls who think clearly, justly and tolerantly, with scholarly, yet keen, minds. We are glad to see them generous and broad in view, interested in the world of the past and appreciative of its great men and deeds, and so the better fitted to learn their own parts and take their own places in the present. There is in children a great fund of interest and enthusiasm, and no study is so well adapted as history to draw out and utilize this force.

#### LESSONS OF HISTORY.

This is very concretely brought home to us by the conditions which some children must meet. A workman must labor hard and suffer privation, while others are rolling in wealth before his eyes and feeding their dogs with what would keep his children from starvation. In this home are the elements of discontent, and perhaps of just discontent, and these conditions prompt him to steal. Shall we teach the child who is brought up under these conditions that it is better for him to starve than to steal? If we do not teach him something corrective, the boy can read and write, but his reading and writing will not prevent his impulse later, by one means or another, to make the man with money disgorge.

Has he any history to guide his conduct? Has he learned about his own state and to take pride in it?

We talk about political corruption and enact corrupt practices' acts. The boy of today has a franchise. The voter of tomorrow who has no history for his

guide and takes no honest pride in his state when times are prosperous sells his vote to the highest bidder when times are hard. He has never been taught about government through history, and he thinks his rulers are the cause of his sufferings. This is a state of things which, as we know, has enriched some countries with rebellion. There is less corruption among common school educated communities than is proclaimed, but the conspicuous examples of deficient or low political morals are sufficient to raise the inquiry as to the duty of the public schools.

Good schools are the best examples of law abiding communities where each does his duty in the atmosphere of law. Law does not seem irksome and restraining to the child, because he breathes it as he does the air and lives thereby. It is demoralizing to inculcate any other principle. The forms and machinery are not the life of the system and a knowledge of them will not give righteousness. So I am wondering whether those who spread these forms,—introduce, for instance, self-government into schools,—are not substituting the shadow for the substance. A good, well-ordered school is the best training for good citizenship. No one pretends that knowledge of procedure is any assurance of honesty or manual skill or sobriety. Skill in reading and writing will not protect its possessor against the mischief that is wrought by overcrowding, by exhausting labor in childhood and youth, by unbounded temptation to get drunk, by evil examples of the rich and by knowledge that the laws have protected the evil doer. But the school gives a man not only a better chance, but a larger opportunity. We make no transcendental claims for primary instruction, or for any instruction, but we know that the only way to open his eyes is example and school discipline. It is not any educational fanaticism, any mere superstition that

underlies our conviction of the supreme value and necessity of universal, compulsory, simple education for good citizenship as a force in the state. The history of the state and nation, widely read and tolerantly interpreted, is the simple yet effective means of remedying some of our political and social troubles.

#### TASTE FOR GOOD READING.

This failure to educate in the better sense has gone so far that education is of no good; that it diminishes neither crime nor suffering. We may well ask, "Why should what we call education do one or the other?" If a man is a knave or a fool, reading and writing do not make him less, of one or the other, unless he has been shown how to put this reading and writing to wise and good purposes. The only medicine for all these evils in the body politic and in families is wisdom. Reading and writing are the keys to the wisdom box, but you must teach children to open the box. We must teach the truth, and not lies, through books and reading.

There is much illiteracy which is not found in the census tables. This illiteracy consists in ignorance of good books. "No man can serve books and mammon," said Richard de Bury long ago. The majority of school children today are not familiar with the standard books of history, poetry, science. They do not know one great book like the English bible, as our fathers did, and they have not acquired the taste for good books. What are they reading today? Fiction, and not always the best fiction, and our schools are full of it. I have not in mind the higher books of mathematics, philosophy and science, nor of the technical books, which involve severe thought, but we do not find in school the worthy, delightful books,—the pleas-

ant classics of our mother tongue. What a confession of this state of things is it that colleges have to make the reading of a few books of English a stated task as an entrance requirement. The eager reading of these books is not the delight of every boy and girl at school or at home. It is not the free choice of what is pleasing to them, but it is study or examination. These boys and girls do not find joy in their reading and literary training.

Perhaps the time will come when schools will expel the silly books and the lying books, and have noble literature, uncontaminated with twaddling myths, and bloody wars, and unthinkable lives. These are with us in great numbers and they are an ever-present peril. The charm of a quiet book by the quiet lamp is world-renowned and sweet. Here even the young child may form his friendships with the real masters of thought and fancy; here characters speak to him, not under the constraint of the school room; here he may laugh or weep without weakness; here he may laugh or weep without coarseness; here he may soar without fear and hope without end. Books ought to be, as Huxley says, his main helpers, and joyful reading is perhaps next to music the most ennobling pleasure of life. The loss of this is the thing that goes so far to deprive society and the people who constitute it of noble and inspiring examples and of the fine flavor of a real literary life. They are worth the time and labor which school compels. These are the teachers of morals.

Finally, I am not disposed to quarrel with those who regard happiness as the ultimate aim of our education; in fact, if I may define happiness I agree with such. Some people may find happiness in very disagreeable things. But I prefer to regard the outcome of education as summed up in the word "usefulness." Without defining this word, the person who thinks upon suffi-

cient evidence and clearly appreciates the effect of acting in a certain direction would be impelled to act in that direction. His conscience, his habit of dealing with his information will impel him to such action that either he himself or someone will be better. His choice and his habits will lead him to so act that the utilitarian side of life will always be present.

This is sometimes regarded as a low and futile outcome of so much time and labor. To think, say some, that to be merely useful in this world should be the result of so many years and so much endeavor on the part of the teacher is belittling education as well as life.

I have met this before, and I expect to meet it again. It is common for man to indulge in the illusions of education as well as in the illusions of hope. It is uncommon for those who are dealing in education to bring it to simplicity, and by simplicity I mean a definite purpose and compassionate aims. Schools deal for a few hours in the day with human beings, endeavoring to give them facts, the method of dealing with facts, direction as to the weight and emphasis which these facts deserve, and guidance as to action in view of the assembling and consideration of these facts.

By books of information and of sane imagination, by the true spirit of history and by facts in their relations,—that is, by literature, history and science—are boys and girls made great in any walk in life. We find in these incitements to love of truth and to high imagination, tempered by judgment. These are the qualities which the housewife, the workman, the artisan, the poet, the philosopher, the statesman, the scholar and the scientist equally require and should cultivate. We should not shut them out, but rather keep them in view of the children while their education is in progress, for the public weal requires that a large number

of men and women of tolerant spirit, of literary and scientific tastes should belong to the community. It is necessary because science, literature and history will, if rightly taught, impress themselves upon the age in which we live. Especially is science necessary because it is not stationary but progressive. Human progress is so identified with scientific thought, both in conception and realization, that they are almost alternative terms in the history of civilization. We should advance its boundaries through our youth that we may endure and act as pioneers in the onward march of states.

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## THE TEACHING OF COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.

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I have been asked to describe to you the way in which we are conducting, at Yale, a college course in Commercial Geography. This is the most common student name for the course, although it appears in our catalogues under the more cumbrous title of Physical and Commercial Geography. A sketch of the origin of our activities in this field may serve, I think, as an introduction, and, at the same time, as a partial explanation of our viewpoints respecting a subject which is commonly taught in a different way.

The germ-course, which constituted our point of departure, was one labelled "Environmental Influences on Man," given in conjunction by a member of the Department of Geology and one from that of Anthropology. This title seems at first sight to be remote



enough from Commercial Geography; and it certainly was so in our eyes, for neither of us had had our attention directed to the latter subject. Our course was given the first year to a very small class, and, as is so often the case, it was the instructors themselves who profited most from the instruction. For, as is well-known among teachers, one of the best ways to get up a subject is to offer a course in it.

At any rate, we became thoroughly convinced of the value of a common introductory course to our two departments. It became increasingly clear to us that a study of man in relation to his natural environment lent a welcome human interest to geography and geology; and, conversely, that the study of natural environment in relation with man provided a substratum of hard fact back to which to refer any elaborate theorizing in the field of anthropology and the other social sciences, and history. The natural science side, we felt, was made more human, and the social science side more solid and trustworthy, if they were considered together, and with constant reference from one to the other.

Some of the earliest topics considered by us were: the influences upon the development of civilization, of climate, of flora and fauna, of topography, of the distribution of water, and so on. And, in casting about for some definite and tangible subject around which, for purposes of teaching, to assemble our materials, we hit upon the fact that they all came into a more or less close relation with the development of exchange. For the articles which are carried by the currents of trade are things which man, in his struggle for existence, has learned to derive from nature under the conditions given him; that is to say, they are foods, materials for clothing, etc. The very form and character of the struggle for existence, as revealed



in the apparatus and organization of industry, is bound to conform to the conditions set by nature. The inhabitant of the arctic pursues a struggle for existence (and invents an apparatus to aid him in it), which is different in many essential respects from that of the dweller in the hot desert; and both live and work far otherwise than does the inhabitant of the fertile, temperate river-bottom. But the products of the several local areas, owing to their necessarily uneven distribution, already in the remote past began to move from tribe to tribe. The streams of trade, thus constituted, and now grown into world-wide currents, thus afforded a sort of index of man's varied fortune in reducing nature, or, rather, in learning natural laws and conforming his life to them. The instances and principles of our original course seemed to emerge in a more suggestive and attractive light when developed in connection with so definite and vital a subject as that of trade—its materials, ways and history. And so we named our elementary course Physical and Commercial Geography.

It will be observed, from what has been said, that we approached the subject of Commercial Geography from the purely scientific and unpractical side. In this we differed from most of those who have developed subjects of the same or allied names. The more common viewpoint of Commercial Geography is that of the prospective merchant rather than of the physical or social scientist; and the general run of textbooks clearly witness to this fact. They contain descriptions and statistics of trade, arranged for the most part by countries, and obviously calculated to show the relations between political units rather than those existing between natural or physiographical divisions of the earth. One of the normal tendencies of such arrangement, it may be noted, is to lend sup-

port to the already too popular notion that trade is a thing dependent, as to its nature and course, upon the manipulation of man: that it is determined in these respects by human policies rather than by the inter-play of natural forces. To this narrow view we were led, by training and viewpoint, to offer opposition.

Some of the regular text-books have recognized, it is true, the controlling conditions of physical nature; they contain prefaces, mostly perfunctory, setting forth general observations as to the influence of climate, topography, and so on. But, in our experience, such introductory remarks bore little fruit, not being followed up and reiterated at the proper and apt occasion, that is to say, while the actual descriptions and statistics were being presented. What we have done, therefore, has been to supply, regularly and untiringly, often doubtless with an insistence painful and even revolting to our students, the general principles back to which the facts of their daily text-book assignments could be referred.

To some of these general principles we shall presently come. But before we could do much with general considerations, we found ourselves confronted by the hard reality that our students knew little or nothing about physical geography; and not only that, but that they did not know the old-fashioned geography which pedagogues, now gone to their well-merited rest, had forced into the heads of preceding generations. One student, for example, was authority for the precarious statement that St. Petersburg was the center of a flourishing tobacco-production. We pursued this clue. We found that he had casually read "Petersburg" upon his canister of tobacco, but had not chanced to notice the abbreviation "Va." after it. Now, we like the type of student who can thus focus

his available stock of information; the quality of bluff, like that of mercy, droppeth like the gentle dew from heaven; but we don't like either to be strained. We wish to reserve the loftiest flights of the creative imagination for larger game.

I need not stop to inquire the why of this mediaeval lack of geographical knowledge; we always suspected that it was due to the invasion of the short-and-pleasant-cut-to-knowledge-system which became popular in America, if I am not mistaken, about the time that these hopefuls of ours were in kindergarten. We inferred that Alphonse had not been crudely and unpsychologically required to bound the state of Ohio, for example; but had been, in the midst of a series of diverting and edifying impressions during the pauses of his doily-work, say,—caught, metaphorically speaking, with his mouth open for the introduction of chance bits of properly sterilized mental food.

Well, to remedy this, the atlas became the badge of the course; it was little short of a misdemeanor to be caught with it off the person. And map-work was required in profusion, the students being obliged to fit out outline-maps with names, colorings, and the like, indicating areas of distribution of minerals, plants, animals and men. And, in order to increase the definiteness and concreteness of their impressions, we have striven to lay the foundation for a working-collection of the materials of commerce. Our nucleus in this line, at Yale, is the Portland Exhibit of the United States Bureau of Plant Industry, now installed\*, together with smaller acquisitions, in the form of a Commercial Museum.

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\*This exhibit has recently been temporarily removed by the United States Government, in order to show it at the Jamestown Ter-Centennial of 1907.

With these words of introduction, I now turn to the more impersonal question of general principles and their application. Of these I can summarize only a selected few. But if their utility in putting life into dry facts be recognized, further possibilities along the same line will crowd upon the mind of the teacher.

In any study of the geography of commerce, one begins perforce with the natural distribution of the materials of commerce; for, roughly speaking, the materials are here or there on the earth's surface, or beneath it, and man must go and get them, if he wants them, where natural forces have placed them. This is obviously true of the commercial products which are inorganic by nature: you do not normally carry coals to Newcastle. Mineral wealth has been distributed once for all, for ores cannot be transplanted, or grown, even under the wing of the protective tariff. Hence one is driven back upon such general scientific principles as explain the presence of ores and minerals, if one cares to do more than memorize unintelligently the localities in which they are found. Here Commercial Geography certainly has need of the geologist's aid. If we know that the Bermudas are built of coral rock, we can dismiss them once and for all from the category of iron-mining regions; we shall not have to commit to memory as an unrelated fact that they do not produce petroleum. Or, to take a positive case—to one knowing the proximity of iron ore and coal in England, the reason for the remarkable industrial prosperity of that island has already ceased, in good part, to be a secret.

The case is similar, though far more complicated, when the commercial products of the organic world are considered. The flora of the earth remains localized in good part, determining by its distribution regions of supply and demand, and so the tread of

trade-ways and the courses of exchange. We do not pretend to raise Smyrna figs in New Zealand. And even if we do extend the culture of plants into new regions, we are always bound to find an approximately identical habitat into which to introduce them. The great drug, Peruvian bark, demanding the drenching rains of clouds blown across the Amazon valley and spilled against the eastern slopes of the Andes, thrived but feebly in Jamaica, and did not find a new home until the enterprise of the British had ferreted out in their wide empire an almost exact duplicate of the original habitat and conditions. Tobacco of quality has always clung to lower latitudes, and considerable advance in the imitation of environmental conditions will be necessary before an American can remain strictly patriotic and yet not be confined to the Pittsburg stogie and the Virginia cheroot. Fortunately for the smoking jingo, the acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippines offers a certain escape from a painful dilemma. Nothing whatever dampens many of these projects for smiting the accursed foreigner except that they are generally physically so difficult as to become commercially impossible.

A similar attachment to native environment may be seen in the case of the fauna of commerce. The fur-bearing animal sticks to the colder regions, the cod to the Newfoundland Banks; commercial coral cannot be fished up off the shores of Long Island, nor can the camel, as experience has proved, endure the alkali-water, the cacti, the canons, the coyotes and the cowboys of the American Desert—his stomach cannot endure the first; he cannot chew the second with impunity, nor walk upon it in his bare feet; he loses his head when he peers down large holes in the ground, not being used to them; the coyotes that insist upon nipping his heels make him nervous; and he has never

come to enjoy the diversions of the ranchman in lassoing the several tempting protuberances of his knobby frame. Moreover, he frightened the horses, and had to be executed in general and in particular. He could not fall in cheerfully with a new environment.

It will be seen that the geographical distribution of flora and fauna is of prime importance in the study of the geography of trade. But it does not satisfy the reasoning mind to commit to memory the facts of such geographical distribution any more than those of the distribution of inorganic substances. The German sage urges us to "consider the *What*, but more the *How*." And since Darwin's time the excuse of ignorance of the *How* of plant and animal distribution has largely passed away. The student must be made familiar here with the struggle for existence in the plant and animal world, as rendered inevitable by the rapid increase of life. He must know something of variation and heredity, so that he may understand how the fitter survive while the less fit are cut off; he must see how, under given environmental conditions, certain types, and those only are developed in nature. Then he is in a position no longer to be utterly staggered by the great mass of facts regarding the natural distribution of plant, animal and man, but to comprehend their attendance upon wide-reaching principles. And if the test of science is prophecy, he may at length be asked to calculate the possible flora and fauna, not to mention the climate, winds, etc., of, say, an island whose latitude and longitude are given.

But, one will say, the plants and animals are not all confined any longer to their original habitats, nor, indeed, to identical ones. Burbank, of California, is going to make the cactus grow anywhere; by removing the spines from the plant he has obviated their



lodgment in the tongue and throat of the animal; he has hardened the endurance of the fruit-tree so that it does not mind having its blossoms frozen; and so on. It is true that man has turned into the struggle with nature all the extraordinary power of his mind, and that he has made many apparent changes in plant and animal life. Out of one aboriginal variety of pigeon he has made, in the course of thousands of years, several score; he has bred horses and dogs for size, strength, coloring, power of scent, and the like. He has altered the materials of commerce, and he has changed their distribution-areas. Thus he has modified the direction and content of the stream of trade. Certainly the study of Commercial Geography must lead some attention to all this.

It is important, then, to supplement the principles of natural selection with those of artificial selection and breeding. The latter processes are so striking in their results, and so commonly known, that it is almost more important to recognize their limits than to chronicle their successes. This is easier to do from the standpoint of commerce than it is from that of pure science; for commercial limits to all such manipulation of nature are set by *cost*. What is physically very difficult, though perfectly possible, generally becomes commercially impossible. You *can* raise bananas in Connecticut, but not for the market; you *can* raise bears in a zoological garden, but not for their pelts. Recognizing such limits, however, to artificial modification and distribution of the materials of commerce,—if this modification and distribution are to form a basis for more than a mnemonic exercise,—they should be studied in the light of the general principles of plant and animal breeding, as well as of the history of the spread of this and that product from its native habitat. These principles can be expressed in terms



simple and homely enough for a child of the proper age to grasp in their essentials; such study would certainly form an admirable substitute for the infant study of biology or dynamic geology.

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But I must not delay longer over the materials of commerce. Other fruitful topics press for recognition, for instance, that of the routes of trade. It is enlightening to note the adaptation of land-routes to topography, and the extent to which, and the limits within which, man has been able to manipulate this topography to suit the convenience of his projected routes. Similarly with water-ways and their terminals: the rivers, lakes, mediterraneans and oceans are ready-made ways of trade, where the surface is approximately level and the friction slight. The natural impediments in these ways, their currents, and the direction of the natural atmospheric motor-force which blows over them, or churns them into dangerous irregularity, have determined the paths of vessels and will long continue so to do, despite the increasing application of steam. To be sure, man marks the ways more safely, removes some of the worst obstacles, artificially improves the harbor-terminals, by the use of steam and electricity renders himself at least partially independent of some natural conditions, and, through marine insurance, distributes losses so that they are less felt; but, through it all, he labors amidst a net-work of limiting natural forces; and his results can be truly comprehended only through an understanding of the natural laws of which he takes advantage or by which he is conditioned. For the understanding of transportation one should also be versed in the history of its earlier and simpler stages, and of the successive advances in nautical technique. He will then see, for

example, why enclosed seas have ever formed the cradle of exchange, and, more especially, how the island-dotted Mediterranean nurtured up in turn the Phoenician, Greek, Roman, Venetian and Spanish merchant-marines and commerce, until, in the fullness of time, the ocean was entered and the modern world-traffic initiated.

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But it is not alone these forces in physical nature (and many others that I cannot mention) that should be understood as a basis for an intelligent and comprehensive view of the life and distribution of commerce. Trade has its materials, which came from out the surface of the earth, and its ways which lie along it; but it has its *agents*, also—*men*. And just as a clear and intelligent comprehension of its physical conditions is indispensable to an understanding of its human conditions, if they may be so called. Here is where anthropology joins with geology and physical geography in contributing to the geography of trade certain underlying principles and essential factors. So far as I know, this aspect of Commercial Geography has never been systematically taken up.

The dissemination of the materials of commerce is nothing if the character and distribution of producer, consumer and exchanger be left out of reckoning. Taking the races of men as they are, it is evident, for example, that your Australian will not produce silk for the world-market nor will he even buy razors for shaving purposes. He will hunt the kangaroo yet a little while, and then die off conveniently, so that the white man can pursue his course undisturbed. It is equally certain that the said white man will pursue *his* course undeviatingly, developing a production, a consumption and an exchange of commodities on an ever

wider scale. Without seeking here for the causes, it is clear that there are striking differences of temperament between races and all degrees of aptitudes for the development of commerce between the extremes cited. Dealing, as we may, in broad contrasts, it is possible to simplify this man-factor by distinguishing between the highly civilized races and those which are relatively or actually uncivilized. Roughly speaking, the former inhabit the easily accessible parts of the temperate zones; while the "native," as everyone knows, occupies only such regions of the earth as are too cold, or hot, or unhealthful, or isolated, for the more civilized brother to come and hustle him off them. The only areas which support and protect a large population of a lower grade of civilization are the tropics. If, now, the inhabitants of the cooler regions were as indifferent to the destiny of the warmer ones, as the natives of the latter are to the fate of the cooler regions, we should have two grand divisions of the human race living a different life apart. But this has not been the case.

Throughout history the peoples of the temperate regions have manifested a deep interest in the products of the hotter areas and a decided tendency somehow to lay hand upon them. Migrations have tended regularly toward the south, and the course of exchange for many centuries lay between the south and north—or the east and west, as it once was, when the tropical products of the Indies came to Europe over Damascus, Beirut and Cairo. The more wide-reaching of the environmental influences recounted above, chiefly climate and its attendants, have tended to create as great a divergence between the products of cool and warm regions as between the men: the yam and the negro go together, the coco-palm and the Polynesian, the durian and the Malay. And the torrid products,

especially the spices, exerted, as luxuries, a tremendous attraction upon the peoples of temperate regions. They wished to get them, and centuries of history have been made about their effort so to do. But here they ran counter to the peculiar disposition and temperament of the tropical peoples, and the result is one which cannot be understood apart from a comprehension of this disposition and temperament, especially as it is exhibited along economic lines.

Without attempting to describe this "lower" type of man except as he touches the subject in hand, he is marked, first and foremost, by a disinclination to labor. He is, therefore, no kind of a producer, having little foresight, living from day to day, and depending upon the bounty of tropical nature to satisfy his few wants. The economic stimuli which spur the "economic man" of the economic text-books elicit at most a quite disproportionate exertion. Trinkets and baubles did something until they became too common; alcoholic spirits did more. Some tropical planters are said actually to prefer bibulous laborers, for they are absent from work only once in a while; they drink up their wages and return for more, while the sober native saves enough in a few weeks to emancipate him from the need of further labor for a year. It can be seen that the orthodox way of stimulating supply, by higher inducements offered in consequence of increased demand, is here all but inoperative.

But the white man cannot normally produce, by his own efforts, in the tropical environment; hence trade is blocked. However, it must not be understood that other stimuli will not work where economic titillations are not sensed. A good drubbing used to do pretty well; and, as a system, slavery better solved the question of tropical labor, from the purely economic standpoint, than has any substitute for it. Demand here

prodded the plantation-owner, the owner brought pressure to bear upon the overseer, and the latter took a stout stick and sallied forth to "demand" more output. But compulsion of this nature proved unpalatable to that portion of humanity which could make the other part stop it, and since emancipation a good many methods have been ineffectually put into practice to reach the soul of the benighted one who could not see the advantage of being strenuous. The commercial exploitation of the tropics has encountered in the tropical peoples a passive resistance and a dull inertia; qualities referable to environmental influences totally diverse from those under which the modern commercial system was itself developed.

So much for native production and supply. Nor do the native peoples demand much from the stream of world trade to which their contribution is so slight. They can use an occasional shirt or umbrella, a tile hat, or a pair of cuffs for the ankles; brass wire and other metallic products can still be sold in moderate quantities. But there is no volume to their traffic, and their trading methods are, from a European standpoint, incurably eccentric. Trade is a passion with many African tribes; but it is a pleasure too sweet not to be long drawn out. The German trader asks for ivory or an ox; and, after deliberation, a little tusk or a sickly beast is produced, and the owner settles down to the luxurious quibble and the noisy assertion. Each piece of goods must be dickered over separately for the maximum period; the seller must play his several roles of heart-sick disillusionment, virtuous indignation and generous, if hopeless, self-sacrifice. Trade is viewed less as an economic operation; and more as a forensic contest—as art for art's sake. Here is no demand-region to tempt large-scale commercial operations. Hence the development of

tropical resources has been pretty largely outside of the legitimate, modern type of trade, as between civilized peoples of other climes; it has been too often ruthless exploitation and rascally robbery. That is the type which the environment brought forth—it is the frontier-type, outside the “protection of the market.” One author tells of fur-trading which realized over \$6,000 worth of furs upon 60 gallons of raw alcohol, mixed with water in the proportion of four to one, and dispensed at a buffalo-robe per pint. Such irregular exchange is, of course, a mere parody on modern trade, but it has, nevertheless, been approximated to in a sufficient number of cases, to render the type a common one under specific conditions of civilization on one side and unsophisticated uncivilization on the other,—that is to say, under diverse conditions of the human factor. For the understanding of the “How” of trade, and for a perspective of its geography, some information calculated to clarify the student’s conception of the human factor would seem to be indispensable.

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Enough has been said, perhaps, to support a contention that in viewing man’s activities on earth, and specifically those vocations which run out into the exchange of commodities, we are not wont to accredit in just measure the natural conditions involved. It is for a clearer comprehension of these conditions that our courses stand. It is not a fortuitous thing that the center of gravity of the world’s commerce has been moving westward and northward until it rests within a western island-group, and even now threatens to shift across the ocean. It is not accidental that Phoenicia, Greece, Rome, Venice, Portugal, Holland and England, as the



hour of their commercial destiny approached, turned their eyes toward the East; nor was it a movement of another kind that caused the right-about-face toward the West, of Spain. The background of all these movements was the human struggle, first for existence, and then for a more luxurious standard of living, the seeking of satisfactions where nature placed them, by men trained by nature to desire and acquire.

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A single consideration remains. Assuming the value of the discipline outlined, is it available elsewhere than in a college? Could the more elementary instruction profit by it? Of course, the final answer to this query must wait on experience. What testimony we have been able to gather upon this subject is affirmative, and about as follows: The essential ideas of such a college or normal school course can be simplified for the young, rather indefinitely, without emerging as a diluted mush of unpractical pedantry. Even the very immature can be taught a good deal of the "How," for the abstract terms and the arguments in which the teacher thinks, can be made explicit through examples and reasoning of the utmost simplicity. Certainly it is worth while, to whomsoever knowledge is imparted to cut out brute memorizing by focussing facts, so far as possible and practicable, about the nuclei of more general principles. But be this as further experience shall show: in any case the teacher of Commercial Geography should be armed with principles of wider bearing and interest, in fighting his way and then trying to pilot others through what has long been regarded by many as an arid and unteachable maze of unrelated facts.



## THE EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE FOR INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

ABSTRACT. DR. W. H. P. FAUNCE,  
PRESIDENT, BROWN UNIVERSITY.

No great movement is permanent until placed on an educational basis. Whatever enters the public mind through the schools, enters as sunshine and rain into the fibre of the oak. We do not ask for the preparation of text-books in international arbitration, or the introduction of any course of study devoted merely to that subject, or for any attempt to make our schools adjuncts to some peace society. We desire something much broader and deeper; something that can be supplied without detriment—rather with great advantage—to the whole school system.

A world-wide movement is now in progress, having as its object, not the reformation of human nature, not the disbanding of all armies and navies, but simply the establishment of a better method than war for the settling of the disputes that must occur as long as the nations endure. Already great results have been accomplished. Arbitration has been substituted for war in the majority of cases. War is now the exception, and not the rule, in case of international quarrel. The stock arguments for war usually put forward by Christian teachers have in recent years received cogent answer. War cultivates courage and heroism, only in the sense in which fire, flood and earthquake do the same. It is not true that "in time of peace we must prepare for war," but rather that in time of peace we must prepare to make war impossible.

There is a growing appreciation throughout the

world of the irrationality and futility of war. The duel was banished from Anglo-Saxon civilization by being made ridiculous. On the stage today, the strutting duellist is closely allied to the clown. We have come to realize that the simultaneous discharge of pistols at fifty paces is no more likely to establish justice than the tossing of pennies or the throw of dice. When the duellist became absurd, duelling was dead. The time is surely coming when the international duel will seem, in the face of international opinion, an utterly stupid way of settling international differences.

What can we do in the public schools? We can inculcate the broad principle that rational men, when they differ, should appeal to reason and not to force. Already our school boys do this in athletics. They are accustomed to accept the decisions of umpires and referees without whining or complaint. The athletic field is thus a direct training for arbitration on the larger scale. We are rapidly becoming accustomed to arbitration in the disputes between labor and capital. This, again, is training in similar methods as applied to international disputes.

We can teach in our schools that peace hath her victories no less renowned than war. The old drum and trumpet histories are out of date. Social science has given us another point of view. The great doors of history do not swing mainly on hinges of battle, but on social and economic changes, silent and irresistible. We are learning to exalt a new type of heroism. The heroism of Wellington, Von Moltke, General Grant and Admiral Dewey must never be disparaged. It is admirable, and, at times, indispensable. But there is another kind of heroism just as vital to the preservation of the state: the heroism of the social settlement, of the city missionary, of the men and women who are devoting their lives to the uplifting of social

conditions in the heart of our great cities. This newer heroism must be taught in our public schools.

We can inculcate the brotherhood of man in every class in our schools, and in every study that is taught. We can show that racial antagonisms are baseless and brutal. Each of the various races makes its own contribution to modern civilization. Jew and Gentile, Latin and Teuton, Oriental and Occidental, black man and white and yellow,—each man has something to contribute to the modern world; and to recognize that something, and use it in our cosmopolitan civilization, is the part of common sense, as well as of religion. The last public address of John Hay was an appeal for this point of view: for earnest endeavor on the part of all men and women in responsible positions to inculcate the method of arbitration as a substitute for the futilities of war.

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## SOME RECENT EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN ENGLAND.

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A brief survey of the main educational landmarks in England's Public Elementary Schools to enable us the better to grasp and understand the great changes that have already been made, or which the present Educational Bill of 1906 proposes to make.

The "Religious Question"—how it arose—its present acute form—the meaning of "Passive Resistance."

The Education Bill of 1902 which was the outcome of the famous "Cockerton Judgment"—which made

illegal the Higher Education in public schools paid for by Gov't grants. This bill of 1902 abolished school boards and placed their schools under the county councils, which in turn elected Educational Committees to carry on the administrative work. This act also placed denominational schools, carrying on sectarian religious teaching, upon the same footing as to finance from public funds as were the old Board Schools—with the condition that they should keep their buildings in repair. This bill aroused so much opposition throughout the country that the Liberal Party appealed to the country on the question at the General Election and were returned by an overwhelming majority. Hence the Bill of 1906 now before Parliament, which is rousing such intense feeling and interest at the present time in England.

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## THE ARTS AND CRAFTS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY HENRY TURNER BAILEY,  
EDITOR OF THE SCHOOL ARTS BOOK.

More topics for the public schools! Why? Simply, and in a word, because the changed conditions of our time demand it. For a whole generation the feeling that the schools have offered a one-sided curriculum has been deepening like a rising tide. This feeling has been voiced by three types of keen-eyed citizens; the farmer, the business man, and the educator.

The farmer complains that the boys and girls of the country are inoculated by the public school with something which gives them an aversion to the farm and country life, an aversion to honest, hard work and

simple pleasures, and gives them a hankering for the city. From Vermont comes the question, "What shall we do? Our fields are becoming pastures, our pastures forests, our farms are being abandoned because our young men and women go to the cities." From North Carolina comes the demand for something which shall keep the new generation on the land. "Industrial activities are reviving, but they center in cities, the land mourns, desolate and without inhabitant." From the Dakotas comes the cry for men. "The harvest is great and the laborers are few." It is the same everywhere throughout the country; but in the cities when a cheap furniture house puts a three-line ad. in a morning paper for an assistant bookkeeper at a dollar a day, a hundred and ninety-seven applicants appear within twenty-four hours!

The merchant and the manufacturer in the city have their complaints also. They say that the young people who come to them from the public schools have no sense of the value of time, no conception of property rights, no power of application, no thoroughness, no ambitions but to do as little as possible and to get as much as possible; that they are lazy, eye-servants, self-seeking, and of flabby character. A city tailor is swamped with orders. When asked why he doesn't employ more men, he replies, "Hire more men! Would to God I could find a man or even an old-fashioned boy! If you will find me anybody who can do anything, or is willing to learn to do anything well, I will take a dozen tomorrow morning."

The professional man complains that our educational system has not made efficient and wholesome citizens. Examining ourselves and our neighbors, we discover, says Hanford Henderson, a lack of totality, a failure to report the universe, an insufficient grasp, a feeble pulse. "Deaf and dumb and blind and anesthetic, we

stand in the midst of a universal wealth which we are unable to appropriate. One cannot recover from one's surprise to find so self-conscious a process as education, a process which we all admit to be a means and not an end, ignoring its own material, the sensational world; ignoring its own process, the wholesome all-round activity of the organism; ignoring its own end, the cultivation of power, and turning to the cheap substitutes of outer fact."

That there are grounds for these complaints, no one will deny; but that the public schools are solely responsible for the laborphobia, incompetence, and lassitude of modern youth, no thoughtful person will affirm. There are three that must bear witness in this matter, and the other two are the industrial world and the home.

Nowhere has the influence of the old industrial training been set forth more fairly and concisely than in the recent Report of the Commission on Industrial and Technical Education for Massachusetts. That report shows that formerly the apprentice system did its full share in training for efficient citizenship, and that the decay of that system is largely responsible for the present state of affairs. "Every day lost by the apprentice system," says the report, "was gained by the school, until imperceptibly, under steady pressure, the school came to stand alone as the only means of training, and the child came to be almost wholly separated from the ordinary activities of life."

But the most potent factor in education in the old days was the home. The homes were mostly in the open country, and made by men and women of great practical efficiency.

The Man—cleared land, cut wood, made rails and posts, built stone walls; built barns and sheds, made simple furniture and farm utensils, involving carpen-



try, blacksmithing and painting; cared for bees, poultry, sheep, cattle, horses; could break colts and steers; milk, shear sheep, butcher; could plow, plant, cultivate and harvest vegetables; sow, mow, reap, thresh, and winnow grain; could read the sky, tell birds, wild animals, insects, and common plants and trees at sight; could plant, prune, and graft trees; make maple syrup and vinegar, cure ham and bacon; fish, trap, and hunt successfully; make shoes, harnesses, and simple tools; weave baskets, make kites, bow guns, darts, whistles, etc., for the children; repair anything; shave himself; make a telling speech at town meeting.

The Woman—understood all phases of housework, sweeping, dusting, washing, ironing; could cook, make yeast, soap, candles, butter, cheese, sausages, preserves of all sorts, candy, wines, and cordials; could spin yarn from wool and thread from flax; dye it, knit, weave, embroider; shrink cloth, bleach cloth; cut out and make ordinary garments, darn, and mend anything well; braid rugs, paper a room, cut hair; gather medicinal herbs, nurse the sick, rear children; manage a flower garden, have potted plants bloom all winter indoors; milk, make hay, and have all the children clean and neatly dressed at church on time, Sunday morning.

In comparison with such men and women, we of the present generation seem

“Amid the muses, deaf and dumb,  
Amid the gladiators, halt and numb!”

Of course we can do many things our forefathers could not do; but Henderson displays the contrast thus:—

“The modern man has a voice which is a bit squeaky and harsh, and boasts no great carrying power; but then he has the long-distance telephone, and can call



prices from New York to Chicago. Stentor could not have done that. The modern man is rather near-sighted and astigmatic, and may fail to recognize his best friend across the street; but then he can look at the moon through his great telescopes and can see things which Ptolemy never caught sight of. Our modern man may be a little dull of hearing and rather hard to talk to, but with a microphone he can hear a fly walk. He is a trifle short-winded and finds running fatal, but why should he want to run when the 'elevated' shoots him over the city, and the 'limited' over the country? All along the line of modern human defect we find substitution of some mechanical excellence. The modern man is not personally attractive, but he has undoubted taste in bric-a-brac. He has lost his wholesome appetite, but gained a French cook. He fails in democracy, but he gives alms. He denies himself fresh air and pure water, but he has the sanitarium and the doctor. Stated in this bald fashion the illusion is evident. One puts it aside as resolutely as one would put aside the tempter himself. The substitutes are poor trinkets to be offered in exchange for human power and beauty and excellence."

But the point just now is that those homes were educational centres of superior efficiency. Not upon the farms only, but even in the villages where every man had

"An acre of land around each door,  
And a cow and a couple of sheep, or more,"

the boys and girls received a wholesome discipline in handicraft, and a vigorous training in the cardinal virtues every day in the year.

There was wood to be brought from the shed every night after school; there were eggs to collect every

morning; for every meal fresh water must be drawn; regularly, every day, chickens, pigs, horses must be fed; cows must be driven to pasture in the morning and brought home at night; calves must be suckled, colts rubbed down, gardens weeded, wood cut, hay spread, berries picked, corn husked,—in short there were chores without end. And indoors another endless round offered itself. From tending the baby, washing dishes, dusting, and bed making, the little apprentice passed to sweeping, knitting, mending, washing, soap-making, butter-making, preserving, and cooking.

And how wisely these tasks were graduated! Always something easy enough to be well done if essayed with good will; always something just ahead a little more exacting, but novel enough to pique the curiosity, and useful enough to spur the ambition. From helping mother from love of her, in tasks of no moment, to helping father for love of the family, in tasks of consequence, the boy was promoted to tasks of his own, for the regular performance of which he alone was responsible; and then, when his faithfulness had been approved to tasks of such importance that the comfort and even the life of helpless creatures depended upon his fidelity to duty. The boy looked forward year by year to some more honorable office. He was promoted upon the basis of merit from one position of trust to the next as rapidly as his developing powers and his growing trustworthiness would warrant. A similar promotion awaited the girl from the day she began to care for her doll clothes to the day she began to prepare her own bridal outfit.

But in the modern town or city home everything is different. Food is cooked by gas or electricity; servants do the work in the kitchen, in the laundry, in the cellar, and about the house; water comes in pipes, the milkman brings the milk, the postman the mail, the

paper-boy the papers; there are no chores, and the all-round education once given to every boy and girl in the home is now impossible.

Here, then, are the facts: The discipline of the old self-supporting home is no longer in force; the discipline of apprenticeship has disappeared; the discipline of the public school, unsupported by its former allies, is pronounced inadequate. Is that so surprising? With Crassus dead in Syria, and Pompey dead in Egypt, what can Rome do but worry Caesar?

Upon the public school, then, has fallen the burden of supplying this "practical," "old-fashioned," "motor training." Has the public school risen to the occasion? Is it rising? Can it, like Cæsar, rise to the august position of sole Imperator, Dictator, Censor for life? To the first of these questions I believe the public school itself must reply, "I have not risen to the occasion;" to the second it may answer, "I am rising;" and to the third—ah, there the players change! It is the soothsayer now that whispers, "The ides of March are come," and I believe the public school can fling back the word, "Aye, Soothsayer, but not gone;" for today the common people stand between their Caesar and his foes.

That the public school has not yet risen to the occasion we must all admit. As the Industrial Commission says, in the public school the child has come to be "almost wholly separated from life."

As soon as nature had brought the child to the point where he had gained complete control of his powers of locomotion, we teachers caught him and made him sit still six hours a day. As soon as he had learned to talk fluently, we told him he mustn't even whisper all day long. As soon as he could use his fingers and thumbs in a hundred skilful ways we took from him everything he tried to use in school except a pencil.

We taught him to say "I see a dog," when he saw nothing but hieroglyphics on a chart. We gave him dots and dashes, plus signs and radicals that he never saw in all creation except in school. We taught him to spell impenetrability and pneumonia before he had had experience of either. We took him off the surface of the earth and shut out his view of river and sky and taught him geography from colored diagrams. We cooped him in an ill-ventilated room, cramped him in an ill-fitting seat, made him drink from the same cup with a hundred others, let him leave the room at recess only, and then taught him hygiene from a book. When physics and chemistry were introduced they were presented in book form; all his botany was Latin names; he drew from copies; he designed from dictation; he had nothing but "exercises" in manual training. In real life the rewards of his exploits were leadership, pennies, the stolen fruit, the ability to swim and dive, to play the game well; the consequences of failure were lickings, scars, and juvenile poverty, wretchedness, and disgrace. In school the immediate consequences were almost wholly confined to per cents. and E's and G minuses, as inconsequential to the child mind as the value of X. He saw in real life that if people wanted to know things they asked their neighbors, if a man got into trouble his neighbors helped him out; that people copied from one another, traded with one another, wrote letters to one another. He found that in school it was a crime to "communicate," to "prompt," to "copy," to "swap," or to "write notes." And with all school literature beginning with fables, and ending with myths, what wonder that he came to look upon school life as "not the real thing," a sort of bad dream he had to endure five days in the week as cheerfully as possible? What wonder that bright teachers, like the

author of the Upton Letters, sometimes burst out with bitter words? That honest man wrote:—

“One sees arrive here every year a lot of brisk, healthy boys, with fair intelligence, and quite disposed to work; and at the other end, one sees depart a corresponding set of young gentlemen who know nothing and can do nothing, and are profoundly cynical about all intellectual things. And this is the result of the meal of chaff we serve out to them week after week; we collect it, we chop it up, we tie it up in packets, we spend hours administering it in teaspoons, and this is the end. And yet this preposterous system continues year after year.”

Can we wonder over the growth of athletics, social functions, and secret societies in our high schools? Those are the only things in modern classical high schools which from the pupils' point of view have any semblance of reality, any connection with life itself.

Moreover, our schoolroom methods have fostered the growth of vicious habits. If a boy doesn't believe in his task a “study period” is a temptation to idleness. A prohibition which seems to him unreasonable is a temptation to do the deed. A class recitation in which he may have to recite or may not have to recite is a temptation to take the chance, to gamble, to speculate on margins. A blackboard recitation places a premium upon the sidelong glance, stealing, bluffing. Ranking, marking, promoting upon the teacher's judgment alone, open the door to “pull” and the spoils system. Government by the teacher rather than by school sentiment breeds irresponsibility, contempt for authority, skill in evading the law. Regular class promotions and “the same thing next year” are both alike deadly to ambition. Free text-books and supplies tend to destroy the sense of individual responsibility for property, of

the value of privileges in the terms of cost, and of pride in personal acquisition and possession.

Of course, there is another side to all this, and good teachers have always outwitted the system; but we must admit that on the whole the subject-matter of the public school has been abstract, the tasks almost wholly artificial, the incentives unnatural, the methods conventional, the discipline arbitrary, the rewards unreal.

If the public school is ever to give children anything like the discipline they used to receive in the home and the workshop, all this must be modified in the direction of the concrete, the genuine, the vital, the teleological. The school must bring the children into contact with nature at first hand, with problems of vital interest and obvious value; with tasks which enlist all their powers; with methods which leave no room for subterfuge and sham; with a discipline which develops moral backbone, ethical muscle and brotherly blood.

Are the public schools moving in this direction and thus rising to meet the new demand upon them? I believe that they are. The leaven of the kindergarten has lightened all the primary dough. It has broken up the formal arrangement of desks and programs, brought in objective teaching, banished gloom, restored toys and games to the children, and given them tasks they love. In the grammar grades the hopeful signs are silent reading to gather information and oral reading to entertain and instruct others; health lessons; business arithmetic based on the daily practice of the community, making use of printed blanks and price lists from the morning paper; writing for a purpose rather than for practice; drawing to illustrate nature studies, geography, history, or for the purposes of construction, rather than to embody abstract principles and acquire a technique; but we must introduce more widely and more thoroughly the school garden, and all its co-



ordinated activities; including door-yard design; domestic science, and household economy; including interior decoration, dress, and the social amenities, the care of the sick, and of those suffering from accident. We must foster the handicrafts, especially such as pertain to school and home life. Our high schools must have more generous and exacting commercial courses; more courses in applied physics and chemistry; more shop work; courses in surveying, landscape gardening, forestry, intensive agriculture, and applied art. Such work in the public schools, and such work only, can furnish the occasions, supply the materials, provide the incentives, and offer the rewards and punishments the growing human organism must have if all its powers are to be developed symmetrically.

And such work will help to produce sterling character. Seeds will not lie, nature cannot be hurried, buried grass roots will sprout, electricity cannot be fooled, a joint will not be party to a deception, a perfect curve cannot be copied by a sidewise glance, hammer marks on metal cannot be slyly wiped out, skilful technique cannot be cribbed, there are no ponies in translating raw material into finished objects. If a little force pump works, it works, and if it doesn't work, no amount of excuse, bluff, explanation on the part of the pupil, no letters from home, or appeal to school board politicians can make it work. And boys soon discover all this and react accordingly.

Our model of a well-ordered schoolroom must be the workshop, not the church, where well-dressed people sit up in rows and refrain from whispering. Our ideal of school discipline must be the democratic ideal, not the military, a self-discipline under the pressure of a healthy public sentiment, not a forced obedience under a tyrant. Only under such conditions can self-respecting, self-reliant, honest, earnest, efficient, neighborly

men and women be trained in public schools, and even then only when the schools are strengthened on the one hand by higher institutions, technical schools, colleges, and universities, and on the other by "homes of virtue, sense, and taste."

Of course, no thoughtful person can be inveigled into the assumption that the arts and crafts in schools will redeem our young men and women from all their sins of omission, or usher in a social and industrial millennium. Everybody knows that the more directly and perfectly we train a boy to do anything with his hands, the more likely we are to turn him into a machine. Skill ever tends to automatism. The mind loves to shift responsibilities to the spinal column and other gangleonic centres, that it may be free to ramble on at its own sweet will. And this rambling will be profitless and even injurious, unless it ceases to be rambling and becomes a search for the best things,—for the larger truth, for the finer beauty, for the more lovable goodness.

As our courses become more practical they must become more ideal. We must have more nature study from the poet's point of view that our children may look upon the world with the anointed eye and find there Henry van Dyke's God of the Open Air, and Celia Thaxter's God who cares for the Little Sandpiper. We must have more music to tame the spirit in its outbursts of passion, soothe it in sorrow, uplift it in gloom, cheer it in weariness, speak for it at times when it can find no language but a cry. We must have more fine art that our young men may see visions, and our young women may dream dreams. We must have more inspiring biography and history that our children may see their fathers glorified—the men who made way for liberty and died, the women who endured as seeing the invisible. We must have more poetry, more

ethical instruction, more interpretation of great literature, that our children may have exalted ideals of manhood and womanhood, of human brotherhood, of mutual helpfulness, of individual responsibility, of the great spiritual realities which bind the world by golden chains about the throne of God. "Where there is no vision the people perish."

Caesar will survive the ides of March, and live to reorganize the Triumvirate. The new school will be supported by the new home whose inmates will realize that out of it are the issues of life, and by the new commercialism which will realize that the Republic's chief business is education. And the time will come when one generation can say as it contemplates the next,

"I framed his tongue to music,  
I armed his hand with skill,  
I molded his face to beauty  
And his heart to the throne of Will."

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## THE INDIVIDUAL VERSUS THE CLASS.

DR. GEORGE C. CHASE,  
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If I could only live my life over again! Ah! if I had better appreciated my school privileges! If there had only been some one to advise me at that critical time! Is there a person present who has never found himself involuntarily making confessions like these? The pathos of every thoughtful life is in its profound conviction of failure, and we are all, sometimes, at least, impressed with the painful contrast between what we are and what we might have become. The deepest consciousness of each of us is the consciousness of his

own individuality, and it is the pang of pangs to feel that we have been heedless of its demand for recognition and realization. For each individuality is at once actual and potential,—actual as exhibiting certain observable qualities in certain relations to one another; potential, as having in it the promise and the potency of a life infinitely richer and stronger than the present. Thus the task set for each of us for time and for eternity is the realization of his own individuality. And to us it is a work more significant and interesting than all the undertakings of science and statesmanship, more eventful than the issues of society and civilization.

Now, while in accomplishing this task we may be aided by all available human experience, may and must become indebted to every man with whom we have relations, we may rightfully and distinctively look for special help to the parent, the preacher and the teacher. And the service of the teacher is pre-eminent. The parent at best can aid but few, and those the members of his own household; moreover, he must give his chief energies to the problems of the bread-winner in his own calling. The preacher speaks to the deepest instincts of mankind, but it is usually to beings already largely fashioned,—and even when he magnifies his calling most he can merely *invite* men to listen to him. To the teacher alone does society give the very keys of human nature at a time when its most secret chambers are waiting to be unlocked, and bid him assume the awful responsibility of binding and loosing the untested powers, knowing as it does that whatsoever he shall bind on earth shall be bound in heaven, and whatsoever he shall loose on earth shall be loosed in heaven.

For, if it be asked what is the distinctive function of the teacher the answer must be, to work with his pupils for the full realization of the individuality of each. As the professed guide and inspirer of youth enters

the school-room day by day and gazes upon the faces before him, he should see in each child a being whose life current henceforward is to receive direction from himself. To him will be traceable, at each successive period of his pupil's career, the influences that have quickened, nourished and enriched his nascent powers, clothing his life with strength and beauty, and aiding in the evolution of its deepest significance, or that have deadened, dwarfed and paralyzed the energies that might have yielded the purest satisfaction in their exercise and blessed a needy world with their fruitful results. The teacher fully alive to his opportunity and his responsibility stands ever beneath the shadows of Ebal and Gerizim and hears by anticipation the blessings and the cursings that will one day be pronounced upon his leadership.

How shall the teacher perform his function? How work with his pupils for the realization of the potential individuality of each? Evidently the very first duty of the instructor is to find the boy; to find the girl,—the actual boy or girl, the potential man or woman. His problem is in many cases intricate; in every case difficult. But if he be a true teacher it is always interesting. It is an intricate problem. To know thoroughly the actual boy or girl he must know their antecedents,—their race, ancestry, religion, their home life and surroundings, their sports, playmates, and daily experiences. He must know their ideals, their temptations, and their habits. He should know the crises through which they have passed, the, to them, momentous events that have already shadowed or brightened their young lives, and issued in their first practical maxims or the beginnings of their philosophy. He must know the boy and the girl as they stand before him in their present actual individuality. It were well could he know them in body, mind and soul. He

cannot fully understand them unless his knowledge be comprehensive. That boy with broad chest, sound limbs, keen eyes, and with every sense perfect, has already reacted upon life in ten thousand ways impossible to that stunted, crippled and dim-visaged youth who stands beside him. The girl to whom music, art, the pure and elevating influences of a cultured home have ministered from her infancy, has little fellowship with that neglected child who has been reared amid harsh tones, and the dirt, dinginess and depression of a loveless household. And between these extremes stand the mass of the pupils presenting all the gradations of health, taste, culture and purpose of the community to which they belong. And each two of them, though brothers or sisters, are differentiated by the infinitely varying accentuation of forces that have been working since human, or even animal, life began.

How can the teacher gain even a superficial acquaintance with each of his pupils, when he must maintain unceasing care over all? He does not hold the easy position of a governor or tutor, with leisure to study and direct the entire life of his charge. He must face the fact that in the American public school the **actual** situation seems to be—the individual versus the class. The very number of his pupils seems fatal to the exact and intimate acquaintance that he would fain form with James and Charles and Mary. Moreover, even the courses of study have been determined with reference to a supposed average type of mind and ability that has no more actual existence than the shadowy substances of the ultra-Realists. To cater to the average boy and girl is, perhaps, the best thing that can be done under existing conditions; but this can only approximate the needs of any actual boy or girl, and must be sadly unsuited alike to the very bright and



the very dull. So with methods of instruction, administration and discipline. It is a cardinal educational maxim of today that the teacher must discover some vital relation between the knowledge already possessed by the pupil and the new knowledge to be gained. The fact or truth that is mechanically fastened in the memory is merely waste lumber loading down the mind and hindering all its healthful activities. So presented to the pupil that it seems to be an extension or parallel of some truth or experience already congenial to him, it unites with it by the force of spontaneous interest.

How shall one teacher meet so many conflicting requirements? How shall he deliver his class from bondage to the more confident and aggressive members who absorb his attention, shape the character of his instruction, and prescribe for their more timid or less forceful schoolmates the ideals, the customs, the pastimes, the standards of conduct, the entire moral tone of the school? How shall he escape the temptation to give the largest share of his time to his brightest pupils and the smallest to his dullest? How shall he avoid thinking about getting his pupils promoted rather than helping each pupil to attain his proper individuality? In a multitude of ways he finds himself so embarrassed by his relations to his class that he well-nigh forgets the separate boys or girls, each, it may be, in urgent need of his special aid, some by way of direction, inspiration and encouragement, and others by way of restraint, rebuke, or punishment, and no two requiring the same treatment.

Obviously this conflict between the individual and the class is destined to go on for long years to come. It may be that it is absolutely irrepressible and that the problem of caring for all while co-operating thoroughly with each for his self-realization is as insoluble as that of squaring the circle. But life at its very best in-

volves contending interests, compromises and conciliations.

Meanwhile there are grounds for believing that progress will be made in the interest of the individual, nor will it be by the abolition of the class. The class is absolutely necessary to the individual. The child brought up alone can never come to a proper understanding of himself. We are dependent upon one another for our own evolution. The class in a public school is a miniature world and affords in some respects the best possible preparation for the larger world of men and things. It sharpens the mind by contact with mind. It brings in some good degree the mental resources of each to the service of all. It takes the child out of his own narrow range of thought and interest and broadens his view of life and opportunity. It arouses his ambition and concentrates his activities along definite lines. It calls out beautiful and tender affections. It corrects faults by revealing their odiousness when exhibited by others. It awakens public spirit, develops magnanimity, and cultivates self-control. For boys and girls who are to live in a democracy, there is, save for a few delicate and peculiar natures, no substitute for the public school. There is no other place where eccentricity, caprice and conceit can be corrected so effectually and a true individuality started upon a career of healthy growth.

The class system will not be eliminated, but it will be improved. Just what the improvements will be time alone can tell. But the great problem of the next quarter-century will be how to promote a better realization of the individual. Much can be and will be done by the adoption of more varied and flexible courses of study, by more frequent promotions, and by the substitution of certificates of general fitness for the results

of pass-examinations. A system that permits half our children to be thrust out upon the world—often into the street—midway of the grammar school course, that furnishes to the high school only seven per cent. of those admissible to its benefits, and to the college but one per cent., will not be tolerated when once it is understood that the interests of society as a whole, the prosperity, not to say the safety, of the republic, require that every child realize so far as possible the full meaning of his individuality.

But whatever changes in our system may be made, the one absolutely indispensable thing is that in some way the teacher shall work more intelligently with his pupils for the attainment of those ideals of culture, power and character which are presented by the individuality of each, present and potential.

It is a crying evil of school life today that the opportunities of the teacher for becoming acquainted with his pupils are limited chiefly to the school building and school hours. This evil is increasing with the growth of our cities and towns. There is no place where children are so isolated from their instructors as in the midst of a dense population.

In the country every child is known by all, old and young. Each unit of the population receives emphasis, and the teacher may listen *ad libitum* to the biography of every boy or girl from infancy up to date. Every peculiarity of body and mind is a matter of interest and comment, and if it be a good, old-fashioned community, where all the families dwell together in equality of fellowship, each individual has a reasonable measure of respect for others and for himself. Hence, that sturdy independence and self-reliance that, in the case of country boys, has so often afforded a solid basis for character. Happy the teacher, once not exceptional in experience, now almost

unknown, who studies his pupils from the vantage ground afforded by "boarding round." I shall never cease to congratulate myself that my first experience in teaching took me into every home in my district and introduced me to parents and children, amid all the accompaniments of their daily lives.

The teacher in a large town is wholly deprived of such opportunities. Of the home life of most of his pupils he never gets a glimpse, and only a few of the parents have or take the time to visit his school. But what an insight into the characters and tendencies of pupils would be afforded by even a limited knowledge of this sort. I have repeatedly felt my sympathy with students at Bates College intensified, and my respect for them in some cases multiplied, by a brief interview with their fathers or mothers. In some cases such an interview has poured a flood of light upon individual peculiarities and helped me to a better appreciation, a broader tolerance, and a wiser adaptation of means to ends. Doubtless most teachers might learn more of the environments of their pupils, yet I readily grant that the city teacher is sharply limited in this respect. Still, if the details cannot be learned, it is often possible to know something of the general conditions under which a child is living. The locality in which he has his home will usually give many important clues to the influences that have moulded him, and thus suggest methods suited to his needs. Every teacher should be a student of sociology, and so far as possible a gatherer at first hand of illustrative facts. It seems to me to be possible for any city public school teacher to learn in a general way many things about the environment of his pupils that will render him more successful in meeting their specific needs. It is unpardonable in a teacher to be indifferent to such information of this kind as he might gain.

Every progressive teacher of our time is coming to appreciate the importance to him of the study of psychology, especially of physiological psychology. If such study does not directly acquaint him with the physical and mental constitution of each pupil, it helps him to become an intelligent observer of each, to find the special group in which the boy or girl belongs, and to study discriminately the relations existing between body and brain. After taking up recently with a class of students the study of habit from the point of view of physiological psychology, I made out a list of some forty habits and asked each one of them to select one or more habits to form, requesting a report from each at the end of a specified time. The list was comprehensive, including new habits of eating, retiring, rising, dressing, breathing, carriage, speaking, walking, enunciating, pronouncing, reading, studying, facial expression, physical exercise, care of health, use of slang, evil speaking, etc. The result was a series of revelations to me and to the members of the class. It probably contributed more to my knowledge of them, and in some cases to their knowledge of themselves, than had been afforded by any entire year previous. This is but an example of almost numberless ways in which the application of psychology to individual experience may aid in solving the problem of self-realization.

Another mine of valuable information has been opened at most colleges through careful examinations by specialists of the physical condition of each student. The most obviously useful information thus gained relates to the condition of the eyes and ears. Thus, out of a class of one hundred and twenty-five recently examined at Bates College—seventy-five young men and fifty young women—it was found that nearly thirty were defective in vision to a degree requiring attention, and in most cases the services of an oculist.

This examination and its results will, with some of those students, make the difference between a college education and the lack of it, and with all of them a decided difference in the total result in health, culture and comfort. Similar, though not so striking, results were obtained in respect to hearing, and weakness of the vital organs and other defects and dangers recorded; the proper exercises were prescribed for their correction and the development of a healthy and symmetrical body. The time seems near at hand when our school boys and girls shall, at the public cost, be subjected to such physical examinations as shall enable their teachers better to understand the limitations and the special advantages under which their pupils are pursuing their school life. Many a near-sighted or partially deaf boy has been blamed and not seldom punished for inattention or stubborn indifference when he should have been supplied with suitable spectacles or given a seat nearer the teacher. And there are numberless more remote causes of inefficient work which a careful physical examination would disclose and provide the means of cure or alleviation. There are many curved spines to which the ordinary school seat is a constant torture, many nervous organisms so sensitive that they speedily become fatigued by the briefest and simplest school exercises. There is scarcely a primary school in the land having thirty or more pupils, in which one or more children are not incurring evils severe, and, perhaps, remediless, from causes that a careful physical examination might discover and remove. I can remember when the restless boy of highly nervous temperament was beaten, had his hands tied together, was "stood on nothing," or even kept after school. What wonder if, under such treatment, children acquire a dislike for teacher and school, or even become hopeless dunces?



I have known three honest children to be punished because they responded to the teacher's request that all who had been orderly while she was absent from the room should raise their hands.

But if extra-school opportunities for acquainting themselves with their pupils are denied to most teachers, the school-room itself will yield much information to the careful inquirer. Teachers should have such a community of interest that they will share whatever knowledge they may have respecting pupils. A careful inventory of each child's tastes, habits and peculiarities should be given to the teacher receiving him from another school or a lower grade. I am aware that some teachers might make this a sort of blacklist of some of their pupils and a catalogue of the virtues of others. But these would be few in number, and if the duty of candor and sympathy were impressed on them by their superintendent, the fact that they were to prepare such a paper might lead them to a conscientious study of each child. No intelligent teacher receiving such a report would treat it as final. He would understand how the instincts of children ripening in succession and giving place to one another may make a boy noisy and frolicsome at one period and an enthusiastic investigator at the next.

But even when thrown entirely on his own resources the alert instructor will gather generous, if not ample, individual data. He will draw trustworthy inferences from the pupil's dress, carriage, degree of personal neatness, habits of speech, his vocabulary and general bearing. The boy's clothing will often tell the story of his home life. The neatly patched coat or trousers disclose with a pathos beyond words the love of the poor, toiling mother. Rags and dirt silently reveal the slovenliness or neglect of the home. The way in which a boy walks will disclose the presence

or absence of a fixed purpose. Boldness and conceit are easily recognized, and so is timidity. But their cause and cure may require careful study. The poet Cowper tells us that, when a boy, he never dared lift his eyes higher than the boots of the big bully who made his life a torment. Had Cowper only found a teacher who could interpret that timidity he might have been spared the sensitiveness and self-distrust that deepened first into confirmed melancholy and then into insanity. The shy, timid face ought always to appeal to the heart of the teacher. He should never give up his search for its cause, whether constitutional, wrought by accident, or by violence.

Ordinary school exercises may be so conducted as to reveal much of the individuality of pupils. A questioning exercise in which each takes part is specially adapted to this end. If the teacher has succeeded in making the school-room a place of joyful but orderly freedom, where each child feels at home, the questions may be oral. If some of the children are persistently shrinking, it is better at first that the exercise be written. The questions, if sufficient latitude be allowed, will indicate the child's preferences, tastes and interests. Character sketches, written rapidly and simply, will often disclose standards of action.

All the work of the school should be such as to insure the application of the principles learned. Thus will the pupil be not a forgetful hearer, but a doer of the word. Arithmetic, grammar, geography and history should be taught for practical results. It is the application of principles—the actual doing—that at once discloses, develops and strengthens individuality. It is in our volitions, in our constructive work, that the deepest elements of our intellectual and moral natures make themselves felt. So long as mere memorizing, mere passive receiving of facts and ideas were thought

to make the scholar, learned men were likely to be failures in life. The valedictorian of a class in a Maine college that has furnished an eminent political leader, an efficient foreign minister, a distinguished judge, a brilliant and widely-known missionary, and eloquent pulpit orators, is the clipping editor for an obscure Western paper. It is the glory of modern education that it aims to make every student a doer, a translator of formulæ into acts. In the college the laboratory methods—notice that laboratory is derived from laborare—are almost universal. Applied first in the study of chemistry and physics, they are in substance the methods of all departments,—in history, psychology, literature, and mathematics, as well as in the so-called natural sciences. And the same principle is working throughout our entire school system. As a result, knowledge is no longer static, but dynamic—it is converting mere theory into living power.

In our public schools we find the individual and help him to realize himself in proportion as we set him at work. And we must have courses of study varied enough to appeal to the distinctive energies of each child. I welcome manual training, including sewing and cooking, because it calls into action valuable powers that have generally been neglected; so with drawing, physical culture and singing. They enable many pupils to find the special gift that is in them, and the springs of action once touched at the vital point, the hitherto dormant powers of a complete nature are co-ordinated in healthful exercise. If a book on astronomy, falling by chance under the eye of a listless boy, woke into life the genius who presides over one of our grandest astronomical observatories; if the over-hearing of a casual conversation on electricity was the origin of that tireless industry and burning enthusiasm that have made Edison the

magician of our generation, what may we expect from courses of study so adjusted as to elicit the spark of divinity that animates every intelligent being? Of the means by which the teacher may work with his pupils for their self-realization, by far the most important remains to be considered.

Without sympathy the amplest preparation for educational work will prove empty and ineffective. There are many qualifications that are important to the instructor, "but the greatest of these is love." If the pupil is to *become* the individual that he *already* is *potentially*, he must work with the teacher, and his truest, deepest self can be called forth only by an unfeigned interest in him and his possibilities. The true teacher looks upon the child with an insight akin to that of God, our Heavenly Father, an insight begotten and quickened by love. There is nothing that can sharpen the vision for the intelligent inspection of a child's nature, of his excellences and his defects, his virtues and his vices, his helps and his hindrances, his possibilities for good or for evil, like wise and earnest love. Hate, or even dislike, will, it is true, expose to view imperfections; but it will also magnify them. Amid the mists of prejudice mere faults and foibles loom up like natural objects in a fog. You cannot understand the child whom you dislike. You can but partially understand him unless you love him. And even ample knowledge, were it attainable, would make your services purely mechanical, unless it were vitalized by love. The heart and soul, the might, mind and strength of a pupil can be enlisted even for his own improvement only by appreciative love. Love must and will discriminate. It will exult with pride over the responsive and brilliant child, it will make due allowance for the slow and dull; it will be amused by the vivacious, and even the mischievous; it will suf-

fer shame and humiliation with the morbidly self-conscious and the blundering; it will be indignant, yet kindly toward the wilfully malicious; it will be imperative, yet considerate, with the lazy; it will grieve over the erring, and will always hope.

No teacher should continue in school relations with a pupil whom he does not love. Either the child or the instructor should be removed from the school. Why! even the zoologist takes a sympathetic interest in every form of animal life. Agassiz, while yet a boy, could "seize the fish even in the open water," attracting them, says Mrs. Agassiz, "by little arts to which the fish submitted as to a kind of fascination." The teacher from whose presence his pupils shrink, is out of his proper place; and they obey a healthy instinct in shunning him. Flowers open to the sun, and children open their dearest heart-treasures to those teachers who feel an intelligent sympathy with them. Such teachers often discover a pupil's gifts and possibilities before he is himself conscious of them. They create for him appropriate ideals, and then awaken his confidence and ambition. Many of the most beautiful and most gifted natures distrust and disparage themselves until their hopes are kindled by the kindly glow of a teacher's appreciation. The author of several of the most popular and inspiring books of our time was in his early manhood attending one of our New England secondary schools, in which each boy was required to declaim once in two weeks. So timid was he that for a year he was excused from the exercise on his urgent representation that it would compel him to leave the school. During his second year he was induced to declaim; and at the close of the same year he took the prize for public speaking in competition with the picked orators of the school. Many a bright boy or girl will not raise the hand in response to the question, "Who can tell?" while others less scholarly

gain credit for promptness and thorough preparation.

The appreciative teacher will discriminate between sensitive modesty and stupid indifference. It will be his duty to bring the hidden talent to the light and to insure to its possessor the recognition that it would not presume to ask. A word, a glance, a smile has often given birth to purposes and ideals that have absorbed the energies of a life-time and brought the long undiscovered self to its heaven-designed fruition. The pathetic story of "Domsie and Geordie Howe," with which begins that charming book, "Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush," has an inspiring lesson for each teacher, while in "Nicholas Nickleby" Dickens has presented the same truth, though exaggerated, from the other side. The man or woman whose heart does not grow increasingly warm and tender amid the atmosphere of childhood and youth has no business in the school-room. Best of all benedictions are the words, "You encouraged and helped me and showed me the true meaning of my life." Worse than any possible anathema is the lurking consciousness that our impatience or neglect or blunt lack of tact has cheated some child out of his birthright, dooming him to inferiority and bitterness of spirit, when he might have shone among the Lord's own anointed.

When we learn to make the realization for each pupil of his potential, his ideal self the function of every teacher and the end of all our school organization, discipline and methods, we shall solve the problem, not merely of education but of civilization, of human progress. For we shall find and secure the acceptance of the true standards of individual life. We shall substitute for the conventional notion that certain favorite occupations are more honorable than others, the conviction that the occupation conferring the greatest distinction upon a man is that for which God and na-



ture have designed him. We shall thus remove the prime cause of most of life's failures. Men will come to regard the harmonious working of their own powers, the gratification of their own special instincts for activity and the satisfaction of ideals truly expressing their own individuality as the only natural and reasonable aims of existence. Nobody will prefer to be a third-rate lawyer rather than a first-class farmer or machinist. The charms of public office will cease to make spoilsmen; and order, contentment and peace will banish anarchy, unrest and strife. In the school-room the child, and in life the man, will find that service which is perfect freedom. What an era of progress may we expect where every gift shall find its own natural field for exercise; when art shall be reserved for the artist; medicine for the physician; pedagogy for the teacher; and the senatorship for the statesman.

Herbert Spencer has formulated the law of evolution as "the transformation of the homogeneous to the heterogeneous, accompanied by the differentiation of functions, all tending to harmonious operation, in an organism ever growing more complex." Nowhere does this law find a better exemplification than in the advance of civilization. In its earlier stages the individual scarcely existed, men moved in masses dominated by the will of a despot. There were few occupations; and any one man was much like any other. Modern civilization reveals the marvelous transformation to the heterogeneous. Occupations have multiplied and the functions of human life have been wonderfully differentiated. Yet, on the whole, the complex organism of society tends toward harmony in its working. Individual differences multiply, yet with the result of increasing good to all and to each. In the perfect state each man would have his specific individual service to render—a service reflecting his developed self. And nowhere

would either corporate or individual interests clash, each being subservient to every other. Just now society seems to be experiencing not evolution but devolution. This appears to be due to a temporary checking of the process of differentiation and to the resulting collisions of interests. The individual is catching sight of his possible goal and is fired with a desire for self-realization. But it is an age of machinery, of combined capital and of corporations. These, if selfishly controlled, tend to mass men together in the service of the few, thus threatening the further differentiation of functions and of men. Then, by reaction, working men mass themselves together for resistance, surrendering as in our trades-unions the rights of individuals for the protection of the masses. The result is a blind selfishness that is fatal to self-hood, self-realization. Under these conditions individual skill and inventiveness suffer repression and progress is temporarily checked. It is the function of the school to magnify the individual, to render him indispensable to industry and society by putting a premium on his taste, his skill, his distinctive genius, and by imparting to him the self-worth and self-appreciation that shall ensure him a hearing.

For thinking men will never forget that every step of progress in the world's history has been taken through some individual's superiority to his fellows—superiority in taste, inventiveness, thought-power or moral insight and vigor. It is for the teacher, pre-eminently, by fidelity to his grand, his distinctive work of co-operating with his pupils for the differentiation and evolution of men and women to take care that the wheels of progress are kept moving. The teachers of today will be held responsible for the future of their pupils and for the fate of our civilization.

## THE NEED OF PUBLIC TRADE SCHOOLS:

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In discussing the subject of Trade Schools I have hitherto found it desirable to define the title. A Trade School is an institution in which handicrafts are taught with the definite purpose of producing skilled artisans. The graduates of a Trade School should be competent carpenters, plumbers, bricklayers, blacksmiths, painters, machinists, etc. The work of the Trade School may also include teaching the various occupations in which women engage. The Trade School, then, differs from the Technical School; for the object of the latter is to train highly accomplished engineers. Neither is the Trade School the same thing as a Manual Training School. The purpose of Manual Training is to give to boys and girls the culture and general improvement which comes from the education of the hands and eyes. The Trade School is frankly vocational. It fits men to earn a living in some specific way and to render to the state the indispensable service of the skilled workman. It takes the place of the old apprentice system. Two generations ago the youth who wished to learn a trade was "bound out" as an apprentice. He learned his business by working at it under the direction of older workmen. The process at best was slow and wearisome, and, practically, it is no longer in use. To-day there are few apprentices and such as may still be found are learning very little. The labor unions restrict the number of apprentices to limits grotesquely below obvious needs. The boys suffer from the jealousy, ill-will, and incompetence of those who are supposed to teach them and from the greed of employers

who try to get a man's work out of them for a boy's wages.

The situation of a boy whose teachers wish him to remain ignorant and whose employer wishes him to do the impossible is certainly lamentable. Partly as a result of these things the standard of excellence in workmanship, in this country, is surely deteriorating. The number of workmen who can do a good job is growing smaller and smaller.

I pass over the many devices by which men, and contractors, fraudulently make work for each other; I pass over the outgrowths of the human laziness in which I largely share, to repeat that manual skill, knowledge of how to do it, and ability to do it, seem to be vanishing factors in American society. Our best workmen are elderly men or are imported from Europe.

These impressions of mine are based upon some acquaintance with conditions existing in Connecticut in high grade manufacturing and in the building trades. That the same conditions exist elsewhere in America and in other employments I believe, but as to that I am not so well informed personally.

It would be unfair not to mention as a yet unnamed cause of this state of things, a prevailing belief among us that a trade is not so dignified a vocation as a profession, that wages are less honorable than salaries. Theoretically, we often talk otherwise, but for our individual selves we prefer work that is so little per year rather than so much per day.

It seems likely that this notion will disappear with the progress of civilization. The gradual reduction of working hours to coincide with office hours, the improvement in the hygienic and aesthetic surroundings of the shop, the rapidly diminishing call for physical strength and exhausting toil—all these things are tending to dignify and make attractive many forms of labor

hitherto regarded as burdensome and objectionable. There seems good reason to believe that in the near future the tendency from the trades to clerical and office work may cease and be reversed.

How, then, shall the American boy learn a trade if he can be brought to understand and seek such a career? Not by becoming an apprentice. The employer often does not want him and the workmen won't have him. Not in a trade school, for they are very, very few.

Now our whole system of public education is based upon the theory that the state, for its own safety, must see to it that the citizens are intelligent, trained to know and understand, able to vote with discretion. We educate our boys and girls, not primarily for their personal benefit but for the benefit of the state. Public education is a defence against public danger and a measure for public welfare. Whatever training makes a man a better and more useful citizen should be given him, in the interest of the republic, if to give it be possible and economically practicable.

To me, at least, it appears that the greatest danger which threatens the country just now comes from the lack of means for training the young to the vocations which must be followed by a large fraction of our people if we are to hold any position in the world.

We have plenty of weapons for fighting other evils. The laws are ample for maintaining honest methods in business and for protecting the weak against rapacity and fraud. We shall enforce these laws when we are ready and desirous so to do—soon, now, let us hope.

But we cannot train those who must do the work in this country during the next thirty years. We have no means for doing this. The amount of poor, mean, unskilled, disreputable work now foisted on the public and paid for by the public is itself an indication of the

worse conditions which may be expected unless some radical improvements be undertaken at once. It is amazing that we should take so much pains and spend so much money in training boys and girls in our ordinary school curricula, and then turn them loose without the slightest knowledge how to do one single thing as the world wants it done. The German people know better than this.

Now I am far from advocating any curtailment of present public school opportunities. We ought to have many more high schools and colleges, and the age at which children may lawfully leave school should, I think, be raised. But it seems to me that our public educational system is dangerously defective in that it does not provide instruction in the kinds of service which the majority of the pupils are expected to render.

Some enlightened manufacturers are much disturbed over this matter and, especially in New England, are endeavoring to restore and expand the apprentice system. They will probably fail to do more than mitigate the evil in a narrow portion of industrial life. What we need is an awakening of the general public to a realization of the danger that we are in. Trade Schools, manned by competent instructors whose sole business is to instruct, exacting a standard so high that American workmanship shall again become a matter of national pride; Trade Schools maintained by public funds and free as other public schools are free—these may solve this great and pressing problem. A bright boy can probably learn more in two years in a trade school than in four years of apprenticeship, simply because those over him are interested in nothing but his progress.

Just where schools of this sort should be rated in the public school system is a minor question. That such trade schools as now exist find their best patronage



from men already at work, who attend the evening sessions, seeking improvement in a trade at which they labor by day, is a striking evidence of the need of more such institutions.

Of course, when a boy spends two or three years in a trade school he must lose those years from academic work. That is inevitable. But is it not true that a young man with a good trade in which he is expert is more likely to make good his academic deficiencies, than is a high school graduate, who can do nothing, to become a useful citizen?

Thus far in the world's history there has never existed an educated community. When, for the first time, such a community does exist, it will be found that an essential portion of education is industrial and that the distinction between trade and profession, between artisan and artist, tends to disappear. America should be zealous to lead toward this goal; for a country that could not endure, half slave and half free, will not long endure half educated and half uneducated.

But today the outlook for the American boy of, say, sixteen is not encouraging. Let us suppose that he has been through the grammar schools and perhaps half his high school course. In a vast majority of cases insuperable obstacles make college or technical school inaccessible. And when everybody goes to college everybody will also have to work. Our sixteen-year-old does not care for clerical work. He does care to make things, he wants to learn a trade. What shall he do? He will seldom or never be taken as an apprentice. The state, willing to teach him all about machinery, will not teach him to make it or to run it; willing to teach him the uses of metals, will not teach him to use them; willing to give him arithmetic sums about building houses, will not teach him to build

them; anxious that he should know about many things, stops short of showing him how to help in the work of the world.

Our boy must begin as an unskilled laborer; a doer of odd jobs, presently anxious for a "soft snap." There is nothing upon which ambition can feed. Tell him that a man must render an equivalent for what he gets, that to earn money is the only honest way to gain money, and he replies, "but I do not know how to earn a decent living, to say nothing of comfort and reasonable luxury."

One sort of boy, in such case, will force his way forward honorably, expiating the sins of his fathers by hard work, picking up by native ability in many years what should have been taught him in few. A second sort discontentedly do, all their lives, what all of us should do part of our lives, the meaner, lower tasks; because they have no future hope is dead, ambitions forgotten, aspirations unknown; the saloon is a haven of rest and the yellow journal is the literary diversion. A third sort make grafters. And we might save most of these two classes of failures, many of them, at least, by simply educating them in some chosen industry.

Perhaps some are thinking that the speaker makes too much of the material side of education, that boys should be taught that to earn a decent living is not all of life. Granted. Yet let us remember that to earn, to earn a living, is to render a service to society. If everybody did it the millennium would be close at hand. Today our social troubles are mostly caused by those who will not earn their livings but seek other means for prolonging and making pleasant their stay on earth.

I do not advocate public trade schools as a panacea for all social ills. But I advocate their establishment as necessary to industrial success, necessary to the con-

tinuance of national prosperity, necessary to the reasonable efficiency and happiness of the generation which is about to crowd ours off the stage, essential to the development of the best in American manhood.

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## ON THE TRAIL OF THE TROUBLESOME BOY.

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Within a generation or two the physician who attended us in illness relied upon a very limited range of remedies, and jalap, blue moss, and ipecac were in constant requisition; the surgery of that day was chiefly blood-letting and teeth were forced out by the turn-screw. This was the day when water was denied to patients burning with fever, when hospitals for the insane of whatever degree were "Mad houses" and their inmates were confined in strait-jackets.

It is not so very long, either, since our schools were primitive and the schoolmaster's knowledge of the principles which underlie his great craft, and of the appliances with which and the material upon which he wrought was quite as meager as that of his professional brothers of the pill box and scalpel. And of that most important element in the work of his craft, the boys and girls with whom his work lay—he knew least of all. He had no clear conception, either, of that other important fact, that in elementary schools at least it is the boy who is to be educated rather than the subject which is to be taught.

An old writer on education says that his schoolmaster knew the boy had a faculty called memory; and

that the boy's memory might be stimulated by blows from a stick applied to the boy's skin.

In that elder day many a promising child was laid away in its eternal sleep for lack of the remedy or the treatment that today is commonplace and available to all; many a darkened soul went out in the darkness of insanity, when right care, as we know it, might have given back his reason and his chance in life; many a wretch suffered excruciating pain from ill-kept teeth or from some accident or some slow growing malformation which modern dentistry or surgery would easily and quickly remedy.

And so in the school of that day, the crude methods of teaching and the cruder methods of management, while producing results of great benefit both to individuals and to the state, yet failed in numberless cases to supply the need of the child. Any pupil who did not fit the general scheme or the crude conditions was troublesome, and the trouble was likely to be visited upon his outer skin. The boy who was stubborn, or mischievous, or nervous, or dreamy, or dull, or inattentive, or who could not do well in certain prescribed studies, or who did not "take to his books"—all these were troublesome.

The remedies applied to correct these troublesome manifestations were as few and crude as those of the healers of the body. The great argument lay in the sensation of pain lodged in the boy's skin. If he proved not amenable to this and the few other remedies as crude, he was very likely to be pushed overboard as the car of education jostled on its way. The trail of the troublesome boy was likely to lead out of school by a short cut into the tangled thickets of life.

As towns grew, the school systems increased in magnitude. The greater numbers of children living under conditions not wholesome or natural increased the

number of special or troublesome cases in the schools; and the greater average number of pupils necessarily given to a teacher decreased the time which teachers, who saw the opportunity, might give to the individuals with a tendency to be troublesome.

The increased number of troublesome children thus developed has of necessity drawn the attention of thoughtful teachers to this phase of their work, and the study which has resulted has already brought about much improvement—an improvement most necessary both on account of the boy who needed wiser handling and a better chance, and because of the energy wasted by the teacher and the time of teacher and pupils wasted while trying to bring the boy into a state of conformity with normal school-room conditions.

In the old-time school-room children deaf or blind were of so troublesome a quality that they were seldom retained. The blind child grew up, unless the parents could provide private instruction, or would send him to a state institution where that was available, barred from proper education and from much association with seeing people, getting such imperfect knowledge of the world through his other senses as the conditions permitted. The deaf child in the same conditions grew up passionate, unable to mingle with hearing people,—a creature of crude signs and inarticulate sounds.

Experience today has shown that blind children and deaf children may be taught successfully in the public schools in almost any good-sized town. Special appliances and special teachers must be provided. At first these children must spend all their school time with the special teacher in the special room. Later, as they pass the earlier stages and learn to read from their point letter books, or to read lips and acquire the power of speech, they can spend some time in the

classes with normal children, and still later most of the time may be spent in the regular classes.

The possibility of this work has already been demonstrated. There is nothing to hinder its inauguration in hundreds of cities and villages where it has not yet been tried. By it, children may grow up at home, enjoying a mother's love and a father's care; they learn to live comfortably with hearing or seeing people; they thus become a part of the community instead of a class apart, as is the tendency when their early, their formative years are spent in an institution.

There is in most schools a small number of children who are not feeble minded, but who are yet not quite normal or possessed of all their mental powers. Probably no class of children furnishes individuals more persistently or incorrigibly troublesome than this, when they are retained in the regular schools, and taught with normal children. The lack of balance often makes it impossible for these children to behave as other children do, or to attend to their school work in the regular way.

If these pupils can be segregated in a school where conditions are more flexible, where they may be dealt with more as individuals with special individual need, and taught by teachers endowed with special sympathy and skill, they cease to be a trouble to the school system; they no longer take an undue portion of the time of the regular teachers; and they receive benefits which would be impossible for them under regular conditions in the regular classes. These pupils may never become brilliant or highly successful; they may never become balanced or wholly self-directing members of the community. But many of them can be saved for some years from the streets. They can usually be sent out well disposed towards life, and saved from that impulse towards degradation which gross ignorance gives.



The schoolmaster's skill in diagnosis has gone further than this. He not only recognizes these marked and special classes of pupils, but he has become wise concerning many other sources of trouble.

It is not impossible that the boy of sullen or perverse or ungovernable temper may at some time in the past have suffered a fall or blow which has left some pressure upon the brain or some constriction of a great nerve. Inquiry may show that what the boy needs is not discipline but surgical attention.

The boy who is dull may not have a weak or slow mind, he may not see well and so need a different seat in the schoolroom, or he may need glasses fitted so as to correct his vision. Or, he may be a poor speller because he cannot hear well and need a seat nearer to the teacher, or some special care from her, or he may need the help of the aurist in correcting his defective hearing.

The child may be suffering from spinal curvature or some other defect and be in such nervous state that close attention and continuous application are impossible, and the attempt to enforce them cruel.

The boy who cannot get his language exercise right may have come to school breakfastless, and be so faint from hunger that correct work of any sort, mental or otherwise, is out of the question; or the little lass whose sums, like Dora's, "will not add up right" in the afternoon, may have spent the noon intermission wandering about streets looking into the bake shop windows because her mother was gone for the day at work and the home locked up. The boy whose lids are heavy and whose head droops over his book may have been kept awake by carousing parents and their cronies in the house the night before, or he may have been upon the streets selling papers, or setting up pins in a bowling alley, or doing some other of the many things

which no little child should be required or permitted to do. And in the study which has given him wisdom to see the causes which lie back of these school troubles and failures, the schoolmaster has come to know the proper remedies—to see when the cure must lie in more and better food, in proper sleep, in freedom from unchildlike toil or in better clothing. He sees when these faults can and should be remedied, and when the only right course is to bear with the child, to lead and teach him as well as possible and to forgive him for the shortcomings which he cannot help. And many times when teacher and schoolmates understand the conditions which bring these peculiarities and this failure in performance, the kindly sympathy felt makes the failure of the laggard no longer a trouble but an infirmity towards which a generous forbearance can be felt.

And unfavorable conditions are often remedied, many handicaps removed, and many dreary little lives made brighter through the insight of the wise schoolmaster into the causes of these school troubles.

But beyond the items which have been discussed in the preceding pages, it is my purpose to call attention to a series of instrumentalities for minimizing school troubles and rendering the trail of the troublesome boy, when he is found, less difficult for him and less annoying to the schools. These instrumentalities should perhaps be recognized as a series and are: 1, *The special help hour*; 2, *The ungraded room*; 3, *The "special" or disciplinary school*; 4, *The parental school*.

When the teacher has only a few pupils, it is easy to find opportunities for individual discussion and help and suggestion. But as the number of pupils grows, the difficulty of doing individual work increases. Class instruction has many advantages; the interest, the zest, the emulation, the help each gets from the others,—all

are fine. But there are always some pupils—a few in each class—who do not take things quite as quickly as the rest; a few whose attention wanders; a few who need more time to grasp, or more detailed explanation to make clear, the subject of the recitation. There are usually a few in a large class who need a little personal attention from the teacher to some moral or ethical obliquity. There are certain to be some who have been absent and missed a lesson. There are some who need urging along the road of knowledge or who need now and then the helping hand over the rough and difficult places in order that they may not get discouraged.

The best teachers have, from time immemorial, possessed a clear vision of this need and have found or made the time necessary to attend to it. But as the classes have increased in numbers the opportunity has been less and less easy to find; the tendency to neglect this portion of the work has been more and more pronounced; and the disposition to rely entirely on class work,—mass instruction—has steadily grown.

Of late this tendency has been perceived and the remedy sought. Various plans have been tried. In one instance it was proposed that each teacher have only one class; that one-half the time of the teacher be given to class instruction and the other half to individual help; or in any case where there were two classes in the room, one teacher give all the time to class instruction and another teacher give all the time to helping individuals. This plan presents some difficulties, particularly in smaller schools where the exigencies of classification often make a single class or a second teacher impracticable. It is very doubtful, too, whether it is always necessary or desirable for pupils to recite just one-half their school time and receive personal help for exactly the other half. The necessity for in-

dividual help varies with different classes and with different individuals. Various plans other than the one referred to have been tried. One, used first, so far as the writer knows, in Toronto, seems to fit all cases well.

By this plan a period, say a half hour, is set apart each day as the period for special help. Most children get on all right with the class work and class instruction; not a large proportion are, on any day, likely to need special help. If the period for that purpose is fixed just before the hour for dismissal, those pupils who do not need special attention or help may be excused at the beginning of the special help period and the teacher left free to devote all her time and attention to those who need her care. This period, then, is free; in it the teacher may inquire into individual difficulties and meet individual needs; individual touch may be had with pupils whom, in the usual ways, she had not reached; courage may be put into the faint hearted; aspiration into the pupil who is disposed to lag; the boy who is likely to fail of promotion may get his difficulties cleared up so he can keep his place in the class. And not least, the boy who is older, stronger, more industrious and capable, may often, by the help the teacher can give during this period, fit himself for special promotion to the next higher class. Here, by the aid of the new teacher at the special help period, the pupil may soon find himself abreast of the work in the higher class, and a half year saved.

This special help period is practicable in any school, under any system of organization or classification. Its intelligent use will remove a multitude of small causes for trouble; it is not unusual that the laggard, the boy who is behind in his lessons, who does not understand his work, who is out of touch with his teacher, is a trouble maker in the room.

In every school system pupils will be found who do not fit into any class. They have not had good advantages previously and are far behind most children of their age; they are well taught in one or two subjects but backward in others; they have just arrived from some foreign country and do not understand the language; they lack interest or application or habits of study, and the special help hour does not give the regular teacher enough opportunity to get the necessary hold upon the boy and his interests.

For all these and for other cases, the ungraded room provides the remedy; for if the attempt is made to place these children in the regular classes, one of two things is likely to occur; either the pupil will become discouraged and indifferent, and, as a result, finally troublesome; or becoming discouraged and humiliated, he will drop out of the school.

The teacher of the ungraded room must possess sympathy and tact, and skill and courage, and must have the power to lead and inspire the boys and girls put in her charge. Many a boy must be kept in motion and at work until he gets the habit of doing things and finds out that he can accomplish something. Many a troublesome fellow must be overcome by the teacher's tact and generalship until he acquires a good disposition towards the school and towards his work. The teacher in such a room must not have too many pupils; sometimes, under special conditions, more than one such room is needed in a building.

In every considerable system of schools will be found a number of children whose habits and dispositions are such that they are not fit to be in a school with other children under the usual conditions. Their habits of speech and behavior may be bad; their treatment of other children upon the playground and on the way to and from school may be cruel or vile; their tempers

may be such that either in the regular class or in the ungraded room, too much of the time of the teacher and the class is required to keep them in order and at work; they may be habitual truants and may contaminate other pupils in this, or in other respects.

For such children some cities have provided, and many others should provide the "special" or disciplinary school. The ungraded room is primarily to aid those pupils who need help in their studies or in forming habits of application,—pupils who may become troublesome, or get discouraged and leave school if they do not get the help such a room can give. The special school is primarily for those who by habits or disposition require special treatment and training in their management and discipline. For these schools most careful selection of teachers is required. Such teachers are born, not made. But under the care of teachers wisely chosen wonders can be done for these children. Special reports can be made and special watch kept on those disposed to be truant, until regular habits of attendance are formed; special skill in management will often, in time, overcome infirmities of temper; specially wise appeal to the boy's better instincts will put him in a good attitude towards his schoolmates and his school work.

The troublesome boy's attendance at such a school need continue only until good disposition and good habits of attendance and behavior are established; he may then return to the school which he would regularly attend. In some cases this will be in a few months; in others, it may require years. But while the need continues, nothing can so well meet it, and so relieve the regular teachers and their classes as these special schools.

In every large school system, and in most smaller ones, there are boys, and sometimes girls, who are on



the way to become criminals. They have not yet reached that point, but will probably do so unless some preventive measures are taken. Some of these have no homes; some of them might better have none.

For these, the parental school presents the solution. Such a school is not a reform school; the boy sent there does not find himself with young criminals. It is a school which, for the unfortunate children who need it—who cannot be controlled in any of the usual schools—whose hours out of school undo all, perhaps more than all, the good any day school can do them during the usual school hours, takes the place of a home.

In such a school, which of right should be situated in the country—not in a congested district in a city—certainly not near a prison—these children live under hygienic conditions, eat wholesome food, have proper sleep. They learn good behavior and good principles of action by precept and by example. They form regular habits of life; their hours of sleep and exercise, of study and work and recreation are fixed and must be observed. Sympathetic but firm control is exercised over them.

They learn to be useful and industrious; frequently they learn to practise some useful means of livelihood, in addition to learning the usual subjects taught in the schools. But last of all, the regular life, under wholesome conditions, forms habits of well-doing and develops self-respect; these serve as bulwarks to keep them in the paths of sobriety and industry and good citizenship when the time comes for them to leave the school.

Many excellent schools of this sort are now established; the need is generally recognized. It is only important that more of them should be available. Every school system should have, as the remedy for those

cases which require it, this agency for the benefit of the troublesome boy.

And so, by these means to which reference has been made, but particularly by those four agencies of general application and sequence which have been last mentioned—the *special help hour*, the *ungraded room*, the *special school* and the *parental school*, the public schools may aid in smoothing the trail for the troublesome boy; and instead of attempting to make him walk always in the broad highway by which most children may comfortably pass, they may lead him by a trail which his feet can follow up to a self-respecting and useful manhood.

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### WHAT SERVICE DOES THE PUBLIC REQUIRE OF THE PUBLIC'S SCHOOLS FOR THE PUBLIC'S CHILDREN?

GOVERNOR GEORGE H. UTTER,  
RHODE ISLAND.

In speaking for the public's child it is only natural that I, a public servant, refer particularly to the public schools. The state has founded these schools, not for the assistance of the individual so much as for the assistance of all through the individual. It is a relic of social development that the whole body is affected by the individual; as the individual advances the whole advances. Therefore, while the public education may affect the individual primarily, it is not for him to accept it as a gift to himself, but as a gift to all. The state provides school houses and apparatus, first of all. These things are essential, but are not the greatest factor in the educational problem. The New England States have more than \$80,000,000

invested in school property, which is largely in school buildings. The state furnishes also that which is of supreme importance, the teachers, and this it does in the New England States at a cost of some \$57,000,000 annually. Then come the children themselves. It is the duty of the teachers to so use that which the state gives that the result may be good citizens. The teacher is the most important factor in the education. Let no man or woman go into the teachers' work merely as a means of livelihood. The work should never be taken up in that spirit. That which goes into the schools must be later formed into the body politic. One faithful, devoted teacher and a school full of boys and girls make a training school for great citizenship.

The state has a right to demand four things from its teachers. First, the teacher must awaken in the pupil a recognition, but a recognition of justice and necessity. Second, the teacher must show the pupils that an education is never completed. As that in school days comes from books and environment, so in later life it is always to be amplified from the same sources. Third, the teacher must cause the pupil to recognize the responsibility of education. The child with an education owes to the public a devotion and service which those without it do not owe. Fourth, the teacher should arouse in the child a true sense of the dignity of honest toil.

One of the greatest wrongs in the United States today is the idea that the man of toil does not stand on an equal footing with the man of wealth. May the day come soon when the man who labors will be in the foremost rank of all whom God has created.

Our country has no place for idlers, and it is, therefore, endangered by them. The public schools must teach that honest toil is honorable.

Have I asked too much? Do you ask what your reward is? The service is the reward. The sculptor finds his ideal in the stone. So the teacher finds his ideal in the pupil.

Have you given your life for this hewing out of the rough stone? Read the tablet to the memory of Horace Tracy Pitkin at the entrance of this auditorium, and thank God for your opportunity. "He who loses his life for My sake and the Gospel, the same shall find it."

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## THE PROBLEM OF SCHOOL RIGHTS.

WALTER H. SMALL,  
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,  
PROVIDENCE, R. I.

When a ship leaves port for a voyage across either ocean the last point of land is taken as the point of departure from which the easting or westing of her course is reckoned. It is necessary in public school matters that a point of departure should be established from time to time from which our easting or westing may be reckoned. To my mind that point is the recognition of the rights of all parties involved in the school policy, the public which supports the schools, the children who form the raw material, and the teachers who turn out the more or less finished product. Soon after Dorchester established her free public school, it was discovered that these three inter-related parties had rights which demanded adjustment, and among the duties imposed upon the wardens in 1645 was this, to "judge of and end any differences that might arise between master and scholars or their parents." Failure to recognize these rights has been the source of

most school troubles during the two hundred and sixty-one years since that fact was discovered. As the time allowed for this discussion is short, I shall present these rights as a series of propositions without any very extensive demonstration.

#### THE RIGHTS OF THE PUBLIC.

First. The public has the right to receive for every dollar invested a dollar's worth of return in buildings, in equipment, in service, in mental and moral development of the boys and girls whom they educate for future citizenship.

Second. The public has the right that its schools in time and tendency shall conform reasonably to its local conditions and demands, as measured by the consensus of public opinion. Every live teacher or school official has in mind an ideal school which grows out of the real, but this ideal school should not be pushed too rapidly to the front. Public opinion will not keep pace with it. The real school is always a little in advance.

Third. It has the right to demand that we give our undivided attention to the business for which they pay us; that physical, nervous or mental power should not be exhausted upon other matters to the detriment of the schools; that we keep abreast of the times; that we grow mentally; that we use vacation in laying in a reserve of nervous energy for the next school year.

Fourth. It has a right to a fair knowledge of the schools through reports, visitations or inquiries. It has a right to frank, courteous treatment in these visitations or inquiries.

Fifth. The part of the public vitally interested, the parents, has a right to a minute knowledge of the individual pupils belonging to them, in scholarship, deportment, attendance, honestly given without fear or favor; the right to have its children controlled in

school, neither sent home, to the superintendent, nor out upon the street, except in extreme cases.

#### THE RIGHTS OF THE PUPILS.

First. He has the right to equality, the right that he should be given an equal chance with all other pupils, to show what he knows and what he does not know. I allude here to the tendency of all teachers in all grades to call on the bright pupil three times to the slow pupil once.

Second. He has the right that as he advances in grade the traditions, estimates and prejudices of his previous teachers shall not be passed on with him. It is a cumulative poison in the school body as lead is in the physical.

Third. It is his right that the teacher shall have a sufficient knowledge of child life and child tendencies, of bodily and mental growth, that she may judge him with probable fairness as to nutrition, sensitiveness, stubbornness, working power.

Fourth. It is his right to be recognized as old as he is. Grammar pupils should not be controlled nor taught by primary methods. In difficulty he has the right to a respectful hearing; the right to belief until proven guilty; a right of appeal; every criminal has this. It is only in the schoolroom that the prosecuting attorney, judge, jury and executioner are all one and the same person.

Fifth. He has a right to the best personal influence of the teacher; the lives of Arnold, Charles Thring, Temple and a host of others are illustrations of this point.

Sixth. He has the right to have his brain power measured by boy and girl standard, not adult. Too often work is assigned without this recognition.

Seventh. He has the right to be gauged by his abil-



ity, not by the calendar. He should be given new steps when mentally ready, not because November third has come and the course of study says "percentage." This may be accomplished by any method which places the individual above system.

Eighth. He has the right to have his work properly rated; his geography examination measured by its geographical knowledge, not by its spelling, nor penmanship. Scholarship should never be measured by deportment; that should be measured alone.

Ninth. He has the right to know what he knows and to know that he knows it; that is, confidence in his knowledge, unshaken by any browbeating cross examination.

Tenth. He has the right to clear, definite questions, and a fair amount of time in which to answer them.

Eleventh. He has the right to the best energy and best scholarship of the teacher, not jaded by too many late hours, whether from pleasure or reading examination papers.

Twelfth. He has the right to optimism, not pessimism, to a schoolroom atmosphere of cheer and goodwill, to encouragement, not discouragement. "Try hard for your promotion" is better than "You won't be promoted."

Thirteenth. It is his right to have always before him an example of kindly dignity, of courtesy, and of refined language in his teacher.

#### YOUR RIGHTS AS TEACHERS.

First. It is your right to receive courteous treatment from the public, in the press, in public speech, in the home before the children. It is your right to insist on this courtesy when a parent visits your school, if you have been courteous. You are not the servant of any one person, and you have the moral right to bow out any abusive caller.

Second. It is your right to receive from your pupils prompt and regular attendance, cheerful obedience, earnest effort in school work, respect for the rights of others, proper recognition of your position and authority.

Third. It is your right to have some originality in your work, to think for yourselves and to have reasonable freedom for trying your thinking. We hear much about developing the individuality of the pupil, why not the individuality of the teachers? It is your incentive to growth and action.

Fourth. It is your right not to be oversupervised, to have your strong work praised, and your weak work criticised in a kindly, helpful spirit, to a fair statement of your opinions and beliefs.

Fifth. It is your right to have the best possible training from your superintendent; it is his duty to instruct, to help, to uplift, not to "boss" and dismiss. One hundred thousand new teachers are needed yearly in this country; only about 25,000 are annually trained, the superintendent must train the other three-fourths.

Sixth. It is your right to receive courteous treatment from your associates in the school work, teachers, principals, committee.

Seventh. It is your right to receive a salary sufficient for support in accordance with your position, that your vacations need not be spent behind the glove counter or in the berry pasture.

Eighth. It is your right to take your troubles to those above you, and to find there a sympathetic spirit of helpfulness awaiting you; a large-hearted, open-minded man or woman who will listen, understand and give you new hope and new courage.

It behooves us as public school workers to "think on these things."

## THE PROBLEM OF THE INCORRIGIBLE BOY.

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I wish to make a few practical suggestions about the incorrigible boy. I shall neither theorize nor attempt to discuss the psychology of the subject. It is a practical, every-day matter and I shall treat it as such. Nor shall I come to the defence of the incorrigible boy, as is quite the thing to do nowadays; I wish to treat him just as he deserves, neither better nor worse; I do not wish to seem either optimistic or pessimistic,—simply realistic. I will not attempt to define the incorrigible boy, for it is unnecessary; you all know him; he is found in nearly all schools and probably nearly every teacher here has had to try her hand at him; perhaps, on him. I do not mean necessarily the born criminal, but the boy who is persistently troublesome, who is seldom obedient, who disturbs the school, who upsets the room, who annoys and irritates the teacher, who plays truant, who seems to have little in him which can be permanently appealed to for good, and who may be malicious, vicious or depraved. Properly so-called incorrigible boys should be divided into two classes; first, those who, although idle, disobedient, willful, meddlesome, irregular in attendance, and generally troublesome, are, nevertheless, mentally bright, morally responsible and fundamentally good at heart; secondly, those who are born wrong, who are out of joint, and who are anarchistic in spirit, rebellious against authority, stubborn, ugly, surly, morose, vicious and depraved. The former, if so disposed, can do good school work, and, in the hands of a competent teacher, may be developed into a not undesirable class of pupils. The

latter may do good school work and frequently show astonishing aptitudes for certain kinds of work. They are, however, not to be depended upon, and are likely to be irregular, uncertain, moody, and not well balanced, and unless most discreetly handled, may at any time, with little apparent cause, break out into violent fits of ill temper and ugliness. Such pupils as the latter are on the border line between the incorrigible and the defective or the mildly insane and should be examined by medical experts. If found defective or irresponsible, they should be assigned to a special class for which expert advice may be constantly available. As this course, however, is in many cases impracticable, I do not wish, in discussing the subject, to make any distinction between the two classes, but will simply deal with the troublesome or incorrigible boy just as he is found in most of the schools represented by teachers here present.

The old treatment for all such cases was corporal punishment, the efficacy of which depended mainly upon the character of the teacher and upon the method of its administration. It is, however, interesting to note how great a change has taken place in public sentiment in recent years toward the method of punishment. Not only do school boards and the public at large discourage the use of the rod, but principals and teachers themselves recognize the fact that the best results cannot be obtained by its frequent and unrestrained use. Many American cities have by rule of their school board forbidden corporal punishment in all cases. Among these may be mentioned several large cities with an increasing foreign element in which good school administration and effective school discipline, especially among the class of boys with which this paper deals, must be exceedingly difficult. In New York, Chicago, Albany, St. Paul, Baltimore and Syra-

cuse corporal punishment is forbidden. In Baltimore it was abolished in 1900, while in Syracuse it has not been used for thirty years. In New Jersey it is prohibited by state law; in Providence it is used only in the Primary Grades and in the disciplinary schools; in Cleveland it is permitted only in the Boys' Disciplinary School; in Cambridge, Mass., and Troy, N. Y., it is allowed only with the written consent of the Supt. of Schools, which, I understand, is never given. In most other cities it is permitted only under certain definite restrictions, and then only with the approval and consent of the principal of the school. These restrictions are undoubtedly wise. The wisdom of the entire abolition of corporal punishment I will not attempt to discuss. If the practical results are satisfactory and good working discipline can be maintained without it, it is certainly unnecessary. If, however, disorder results, and refractory and insolent pupils are emboldened by its absence to worry the teacher, to consume the time of the other pupils, and to menace the working order of the school, its abolition is distinctly, in my mind, a mistake. The substitutes for this form of punishment do not seem to me entirely satisfactory. Suspension from school is a common one; anything more, however, than the briefest suspension, of one or two days, while the principal may confer with the parent, seems to me entirely foreign to the spirit and practice that should prevail in the public schools. Children belong in school all the time, this being especially true of incorrigible boys, who, of course, are the very ones most likely to be suspended under the operation of this rule. These boys should not be on the street in school hours, and the teachers should have the means, either through the general machinery of the school system, or by means of specific measures, to keep them at orderly

business-like work. A few days of vacation is often what these boys most like.

Furthermore, I know of at least one city where corporal punishment is forbidden, in which school principals are in the habit of suspending refractory boys and notifying their parents that they will not allow the boys to return to school until their parents administer corporal punishment at home. Whether this is done with the knowledge of the Superintendent I do not know. It seems to me, however, a ludicrous evasion of the spirit of the rule. If the pupil is to be punished, no one can do it so humanely and so effectively as the principal of the school in which the boy is an offender.

Again, the use of corporal punishment in the primary grades and its disuse in the grammar grades would seem to me more defensible if the practice were reversed.

I do not, however, wish to continue the discussion of this phase of the subject. These facts and reflections only show that dealing with the incorrigible boy today is quite a different matter from what it used to be. The point of view is now different. As a matter of fact, punishments and restraints are not the most important things to be discussed in the consideration of this subject. What is needed in all schools, most of all in those where incorrigible boys are found, is first, good, working, school order with business going on all the time; second, a cheerful, responsive, school spirit with sympathetic relations between teacher and the pupils; and third, the effective adaptation of school methods and means to individual needs, defects and peculiarities.

In dealing with incorrigible boys the most important element is the teacher. She holds the key of the situation—more than that, she is the key. In most rooms there should be no incorrigible children; in some there



never are any; troublesome children in some way disappear in these rooms; there is no evidence of them; the good spirit of the room seems to absorb them, just as the blackest smoke disappears in a cloudless sky. Everything is pleasant and homelike, children and teacher like each other, and the personality of the teacher is so strong as to overcome and control any evil tendencies that may exist. In other rooms, incorrigible children stick out like quills on a porcupine's back. If you look in you see them; if you stir you feel them. They are the ones who are in evidence. The difference in the spirit of these rooms is great, but the change has perhaps come about in the few months it has taken to pass from one room to another. In one room the teacher is interested in every unfortunate boy she has; in the other the teacher has probably been saying for years that this is the worst set of boys she ever had.

I remember a teacher in New Haven a few years ago who at that time gave promise of unusual success and who has since attained it. There were never any incorrigible boys in her room. Bad boys were frequently sent to her who couldn't be controlled anywhere else. After a few days with her they always began to bring her flowers and to stay after school at night to help her. A short time ago an acquaintance of mine told me that he once visited her room just as school was closing. Every teacher in the building but her went out with their lines of pupils to see that good order prevailed; but her pupils, he said, came downstairs and went out most orderly of all. There was a controlling "esprit de corps." They seemed proud of their room and their teacher, and this room pride restrained any who were naturally disorderly. Early in the term they had petitioned the teacher to leave them to go out on their honor and never once had they betrayed her con-

fidence. How well they were doing their duty on this occasion the visitor testified. When he reached her room, he found her there with only one tough-looking boy about eleven years old. This boy had been transferred to her room because he had been a terror to several other teachers with whom he had briefly sojourned. This night he had stayed to help, but the teacher told him that he would have to go as she was to be busy and that he might stay the next night. Before going out he came up to her and said in a low tone in a half bashful way, "Will you please tell me if I have been a good boy today?" and when she said with a smile that he had, the same shining look of gratification came into his face that might be found in the faces of any other children who are not incorrigible, and yet he had been called an incorrigible boy and his chief pleasure seemed to have been to tease and worry the teacher and produce disorder in his neighborhood. Herein was a mystery to those who did not know this woman. To those who did know her all was revealed. Many a time I have visited her school and admired her resourceful leadership. Quiet, cheerful, ladylike, kindly, enthusiastic, alert, she clothed every subject she taught with living interest. With a helpful word now and then for the child who did not quite understand, and with an appreciative smile for the boy who was doing his best, she moved rapidly about her work. There was no time for mischief, everybody was busy. The children hardly noticed my entrance. There was no nagging, no fretting, no sharp tones. It was a very pleasant place to be in and the children knew that they were accomplishing results. People said that she understood children. It seemed to me, however, simply this, that she loved her work better than anything else, that she was interested in every child in her room and that she had an unusual faculty

for getting things done. This was the teacher in whose hands the incorrigible boy was as clay in the hands of a potter.

If all teachers were of this sort the problem of the incorrigible boy would largely disappear. The schools would be fortunate if more teachers were like her. We have to admit, however, that she is the exception rather than the rule. Nor is it to the discredit of our schools or our teachers that this is so. Every profession has its geniuses. Generally speaking, public school teachers are faithful, conscientious, self-sacrificing, industrious and not neglectful of school duties. Such a teacher as I have described is an inspiration for all teachers to higher possibilities and to better things. She teaches us all greater patience, consideration and friendliness for this unfortunate class of boys that we all know something about. For the average teacher, however, of the rank and file who is carrying a large burden of school duties, not without feeling its weight, the practical question remains, "What is to be done with the troublesome boy who now and then appears, who wears out the patience of the teacher, disturbs other pupils, takes time which does not belong to him, is active in creating a bad spirit in the room and persistently refuses to reform?" Shall he be allowed to drift along with the hope that he will become no worse, or shall definite and summary measures be taken at once? In my opinion, every school, for the accomplishment of its own work and for the achievement of the purposes for which it was established, must have at least an average of good working order and no subversion or destructive element should be allowed to remain in it unless that element is gradually but steadily falling into line with the working order and spirit of the room. Therefore, when any teacher has done her best in case of a troublesome boy and the principal

has given her all the advice and help he can, and it is all to no or to little avail, the boy still remaining a harmful influence in school, the offender should, without hesitation or vacillation, be removed and placed elsewhere.

First, he may be placed in another room of corresponding grade where conditions may be different. This has often been done, in my experience, with great effectiveness. Strange to say the chief obstacle to this course is often the teacher herself from whose room the boy is removed. She regards this course a reflection on her, an acknowledgment that she cannot get along with the boy and a recognition of the ability of another teacher to handle her cases better than she can herself. This is a very foolish feeling with little to justify it, and the principal in his action should never yield to it. The natures of some teachers and some pupils are naturally antagonistic and they can never get along together. This condition is found over and over again between mature and sensible people. The same antagonisms very likely may not exist between the same pupil and another teacher. Furthermore, many a troublesome pupil will begin all over again and try to do his best if placed in new and different surroundings. Some teachers, too, are more skillful in handling bad boys than others, while the latter may, on the whole, be just as valuable to the schools as they. At any rate, it is the business and the plain duty of the principal to place such a boy as I have described where he will be at his best, or where he will do the least harm. It is not a personal matter between him and the teacher. It is his duty as a public official. Whatever will be best for the school and most beneficial to the boy must determine his course.

Second. It would be well to establish in every large building, i. e., in every building of twelve or more

rooms, a special room in which such a boy as I have mentioned may be placed. This need not be called a "bad room" or an "incurrible room"—in fact, it should not be—but rather a "special room" for all children who need special help or attention. The principal of such a room in this city used to call it a "helping room." No stigma should be attached to it, else its influence will be harmful on the school. I assume, that in a single building there would not be a large number of children who would need to be placed in such a room. There would probably be but two or three extreme cases. Such a room could accommodate twenty-five or thirty of these irregular cases and should be in charge of a thoroughly competent, experienced and well-paid teacher. When this number of the worst cases in a building have been removed from the regular rooms, the general work and discipline of all the rooms is greatly relieved. Children should be placed in this room temporarily and should be returned to their own rooms whenever the special teacher and the room teacher agree that this should be done.

Third. There should be in every large city, in connection with the school system, at least one disciplinary school for truants and incorrigible boys. Boys who do not yield to the milder measures which I have already suggested should be placed in one of these. Two such schools are maintained in New Haven and are regarded by all the principals as an important and effective factor in school discipline. Perhaps I can do no better than to outline the method of dealing with unruly boys in relation with these schools. Each of the schools occupies a regular schoolroom so located as to accommodate different sections of the city. One of these rooms is in a small building by itself and the other is one of the regular schoolrooms in an eight-room building. Each is in charge of an experienced

and efficient teacher, one a man and the other a woman, whose salaries are the same. The schools are called "Ungraded Schools" to distinguish them, as disciplinary schools, from several unclassified rooms, which are really ungraded in their work, but which have no disciplinary features. Formal blanks are furnished all school principals upon which they are required by rule to report to the Supt. of Schools each case of truancy, and upon which they may also report cases of insubordination or incorrigibility. On the blank the principal may recommend, if he wishes to do so, that the offender be transferred to the Ungraded School. About 300 of these reports reached the Superintendent during the school year just closed. Of these 300 reports fully 90 per cent. were for truanies. Taking it for granted that not more than two-thirds of the truanies were discovered and reported, 400 would perhaps represent the total number of truanies for the year. This number in 20,000 school children would be about one truancy for every fifty children—not an excessive number. When one of these reports reaches the Superintendent, if it is for a first case of truancy, he writes a letter to the parent or guardian, who has probably already learned of the offence through the school, notifying him that for a second offence the boy may be transferred to the Ungraded School. If, however, the report is for a second case of truancy or for any offence for which the principal recommends the boy's transfer, the Superintendent usually issues a formal transfer ticket for the boy "to be used at the next offence" and sends this ticket to the principal by the truant officer, notifying the parent at the same time of his action. The principals use the tickets, thus issued, with great effect. The boy is called to the principal's office, shown the ticket and notified that he will go to the Ungraded School if his offence is repeated. This is usually the



end of the matter. The boys are thoroughly frightened and deeply impressed with the formality of the matter and the offence is comparatively rarely repeated. It is probable that the Superintendent's letters which reach the pupils' homes are also followed there by admonitions and punishments, so that both home and school are operating together to check the pupils' misconduct. If another offence is committed the boy is either taken to the Ungraded School by the truant officer or sent there by himself with the ticket. In connection with such cases, two truant officers for different districts are kept busy all the time. This method is much to be preferred, it seems to me, to any procedure which introduces the city court. There is less publicity in the case, and much greater authority is placed in the hands of the principal. There is no law's slow delay. Practically, each district principal sends a boy to the Ungraded School when he thinks the case merits such action. If any case is particularly serious, a statement of that fact by the principal to the Superintendent results in a ticket for an immediate transfer instead of a transfer at the next offence. Of all the cases of truancy, insubordination and incorrigibility reported to the Superintendent, comparatively few reach the Ungraded School; they are checked before they get there.

As my own daily duties take me much nearer one of these schools than the other, I will speak of some of the details of this school, although both schools are managed on the same general plan. The past year there have been 53 different boys in this school for varying periods; last year there were 73. The number at any one time varies from 12 or 15 at the beginning of the year to 35 later on. Perhaps the average is about 25. This, however, is too many. Not more than 20 boys of this kind can be taught effectively at the same time, so much individual teaching is

required. The ages vary from 10 to 14; most of the pupils are about 12 or 13. Each one remains here until the teacher formally recommends to the Superintendent of Schools that, on account of good conduct and regular attendance, he be allowed to return to his regular school. The Superintendent endorses this recommendation, and the boy is given a ticket transferring him back to his own school. As a matter of fact, they remain from one month to two or three years; usually the period is several months; many are sent back at the end of the year. They are usually sent here for indefinite periods, although the period may be limited, in special cases; they are not, however, allowed to return, even in these cases, unless their conduct and attendance have been satisfactory. The school attendance, by the way, is excellent. The truant officer visits the school every day and immediately investigates every absence, so that the boys hardly dare to be absent without good cause. The school probably has more perfect sessions than any other in the city.

The past year four of these boys were committed by the City Court to the State Reform School; last year 19 were committed. It should be said, however, that the offences for which these boys are sent to the Reform School are never school offences; rarely, also, are more than one of these boys sent at the same time. The troubles they fall into are hardly ever connected with school or with their associations with one another at school. The offense is usually stealing, sometimes burglary. Groups of boys of this class are often brought into court from various neighborhoods, among whom will sometimes be found one of these Ungraded-School boys. The following was the case of the last of the Ungraded boys sent to the Reform School during the past year. It shows the shrewdness that

characterizes this class of boys, although this shrewdness does not always save them from the consequences of their misdeeds. One day this boy upset a bottle of ink on the large blotter on the teacher's desk. As the mishap was the result of carelessness, the teacher told him he must furnish another blotter. This he cheerfully agreed to do. While at the store waiting to make his purchase, he saw a tempting looking package on the counter with a man's name on it. In a flash he said to the clerk: "Mr. —," calling the name on the package, "sent me here for a package for him." "Here it is; it is all ready," was the response. As the boy was going out the door with it under his arm he turned and said, "O, he wanted me to get him a blotter, too." The blotter was then obtained, charged to the man and delivered to the teacher the next morning. The package proving worthless to the boy, was thrown away. The theft was discovered, however, and the boy convicted and sent to the Reform School.

The daily work of this room is regular school work, with considerable drawing, industrial, and manual work in addition. Of the latter, there should be more. We are now planning to put a bench equipment with tools into the room. The manual work at present consists mainly of raffia and reed work, and knife work, all done at the regular desks of the pupils. All these boys have sewing every week, and thus learn, to considerable extent, how to keep their clothes in repair. In drawing they make designs, which they work out in bookcases, colored windows, picture frames, etc. They sing, declaim, learn and recite choice pieces of literature, etc. Friday afternoons they have the old-fashioned hour of "speaking pieces." Unusual talent is often discovered and encouraged by these exercises. Their Friday entertainments consist not only of declamation, dialogues, and singing by

the school, but also of solo singing, and mandolin, violin and banjo playing. These entertainments the boys are very fond of, taking great pride in their individual parts.

The discipline of the room is exceedingly interesting and is worth one's study. The order is always good, the esprit de corps fine, and the relations between teachers and pupils frank, cordial and sympathetic. The method of discipline is a combination of kindness and firmness. The teacher is fond of these boys and is interested in the welfare of every one. They know this, and pay her back in kind. The boys are keen as briars and know the teacher's thoughts and feelings almost before she knows them herself. Kindness must never appear to them as weakness, else they will override all authority. Firmness must never appear as harshness, else they rebel. The teacher never caters to them, nor tries to secure their favor. That would belittle her in their eyes and add to their own power and importance. She praises them for good work, reproves them for bad work, and keeps them at their tasks with a shrewd use of tact. For instance, one day she said sympathetically to a slovenly boy, "It's too bad you can't do as neat work as John can; sometime I'll see if I can't help you." After that his work was a model of neatness. She never refers to their past records unless she can find something to praise. For instance, she never says, "What can anybody expect from a boy with your record?" nor "I don't expect a boy to amount to much who has done what you have." It is rather something like this, "You made a fine one last week; see if you can't do better still today," or, "I'm going to tell the principal (possibly the superintendent) how much you have improved this month." What these boys hunger for is kindness. Many of them are so used to kicks, cuffs and rebuff elsewhere

that they deeply appreciate the kind treatment they receive at school. The teacher told me that for a long time after a certain boy came to her room she couldn't pass near him without his dodging her. Whenever she was near him, his most unconscious movement resulted in his ducking his head or throwing up his arm. Corporal punishment is allowed, and when administered, is administered severely. There are four or five cases a year for serious misdemeanors, but they are always deserved, and the boys know it. The offender is taken to a small recitation room after school and the whole case fully talked over. Every doubtful point is taken up until the boy sees the offence with the teacher's eyes. The punishment is then given and taken as a matter of course, and no hard feelings are left on either side. I have never known a resentful case in this room.

The home of every boy is visited two or three times a year. Thus home conditions are seen, and the parents and teacher become acquainted with each other. These home visits usually result in much improvement in home conditions. The teacher, after one of these visits, often tells the boy that he ought to fix up the broken table, or chair, or window, and repair the broken steps, and sometimes suggests to him how he can do it. On the occasion of one of these visits, she found the mother intoxicated. This was no unusual occurrence, and she determined to administer a severe rebuke on the spot. This was what took place: "You ought to be ashamed of yourself," she said, "to act this way. With so fine a boy as John, you ought to do better. You ought to set him a better example. Why, I never come here without finding you or your husband intoxicated." "And it's looky that ye are," replied the inebriated lady, "that ye find one of us sober."

These boys, when they enter this room, are almost

always cigarette smokers and constant readers of dime novels. The cigarette habit seems an almost impossible one to break up. If they give it up, they go back to it again. Their good resolutions are, at best, weak ones, and they cannot hold out against the craving when once it gets its hold on them. Its effects are apparent. The worst of them are thin-faced, sallow-complexioned, hollow-chested, and they lack mental concentration and the power of sustained attention. They admit that these "coffin-nails," as they call them, are a deadly thing, and that every day they are driving them farther in. The most means of arousing the interest and securing the attention when they are in this condition has been hand work and studies that call for physical activity. With novel-reading the case is not so bad. Few of the boys seem to know that there are any really interesting good books in the library. They laugh when the matter is first mentioned. When they find, however, there are library books which they really enjoy, they readily substitute these for the old kind. Of course, they do not get the highest class of books at first, but very perceptible improvement in their reading is made while they are in this room. The old dime novels have given them a great love of action, and they read eagerly such authors as Henty, Ellis and Stratemeyer. They are especially fond of such books as "The Life of Theodore Roosevelt," "With Dewey at Manila," "At the Fall of Port Arthur," "Minute Boys at Lexington." It is doubtful whether, after the start they make here toward good reading, they will ever go back to the dime novel.

An interesting and instructive incident which occurred in this room a few weeks ago, comes to my mind. One of these boys had a particularly restless disposition, and was full of roving tendencies. He



had repeatedly run away from home, always, however, to return. In fact, for one of these escapades he had been placed in the Ungraded Room. Ever since he entered he had been regular and steady at his work and had attended strictly to his school duties. But finally the old symptoms began to appear, and the boys told the teacher that he was going to run away again. Next week a circus was coming and he had reported that he was going off with it. The teacher felt uneasy, but reflected. On the afternoon before the circus she kept him after school. When all the others had gone, she said, "George, you've been a good boy ever since you have been in this room. You've had your lessons and you haven't been absent a single day. Now, I'm going to reward you for it. Tomorrow is 'circus day,' and you may have a holiday. I want you to go home and go to bed early tonight and get up in good season tomorrow morning; go out to the circus and have a good time all day. Thursday morning I want you to come in and tell me all about it." Never before were a teacher's orders so easy to follow. The next morning the boys, seeing George's vacant seat, looked knowingly at one another. But the teacher simply said, "I have given George a holiday today, so that he may go to the circus; he has been such a good boy." The following day George was back in his seat; but the adventures he had had and the sights he had seen—all of which he painted in brilliant colors to the teacher—were certainly, to use classical language, "*mirabile dictu*."

Nothing about a teacher so impresses these boys as the possession of a high degree of skill in some line which they admire. If she can do something that they would like to be able to do, but can't, they are likely to look up to her as a superior being. The story is true in spirit, if not in fact, of the tough school that had

driven out teacher after teacher. A new one was coming, and the scholars were all in the schoolroom waiting to receive him. As he entered the door he spied a peg in the wall across the room. Giving his hat a whirl, he hung it successfully on the peg and then, going to the teacher's desk, rapped sharply and said, "Come to order." That was the end of anarchy in that school. The big boys slunk shamefaced to their seats and went to work. Not one of them could have hung his hat on that peg.

The punishment, too, that just fits the case; that is not of the stereotyped kind; that is a little out of the regular order, has a marked effect on boys of this class. Some years ago a tough city school in New England had routed half a dozen experienced schoolmasters. Finally a down-east Yankee was secured for the place. He said he could do it. He wasn't impressive to look at, but he had never failed in a situation. He took the school. At first the boys didn't know quite what to think of him. He wasn't just like the rest. They were taking his measure all the first morning until recess. When they went out at recess, he followed them, as was the custom, to keep order in the yard. Understanding boys, however, he slipped a rattan under his coat as he passed his desk. When he reached the outer door the boys were gathered in groups in the yard, casting glances now and then in his direction. Finally, one big fellow broke from one of the groups, and, sauntering up to the new master, with both hands in his pockets and his hat on the back of his head, said in a loud tone, with a Yankee twang in his voice, "Mr. Braown, can you tell us what the price of greens is today?" Seizing the fellow by the collar and laying the rattan on his back until the victim roared with pain, the master said, "That's the price of greens today; tomorrow they'll be higher." The

incident ended disorder in that school. Nobody, after that, had any further interest in the price of garden vegetables.

This brings me to the close of my paper. Finally, let us not pass too lightly over the incorrigible boy. Oftentimes he is an incorrigible boy because he is a boy of such buoyant life and such tremendous energy that the teacher is without ability to reduce him to school terms. He laughs in scorn at the rules of the school. He will not be run into the same mould that holds all the other tallow candles. He has more of human power than the teacher himself. Rightly trained, he may be the very one—he often is—to lead in momentous political battles, to superintend gigantic commercial enterprises, to build great railroads, to construct massive bridges, and rear skyward city blocks. What we call incorrigible boys may afterwards become criminals; more often they grow up into respectable men and useful and public-spirited citizens.

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## THE PROBLEM OF THE BACKWARD PUPIL.

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The backward pupil is the problem that perplexes faithful teachers, tries their patience, exhausts their resources, robs them of appetite and sleep, and drives them to desperation. He is not peculiar to this age, or to any system of schools; he will continue a serious proposition for years to come. I feel sure that if *our* long-suffering teachers were alive today, fellow peda-

gogues, they would testify that the slow and backward pupil existed in their day.

It goes without saying that it is the right of every child to receive an education, and the duty of every parent and citizen to provide it. And every child is entitled to all the education which he is capable of receiving—five talents, two talents, or one talent, “every man according to his several ability.” It is the business of teachers and school authorities to see that all—the bright, the dull, even those who, at the time, little appreciate an education—alike receive as much of a training as possible, physical, intellectual, and moral.

Education is productive expenditure, not mere charity. Every community exercises the wisest wisdom in dealing intelligently and generously with its schools. Good schools cost money; they cost more than they did formerly; they will cost more in the future than they do today. The money, however, is well invested.

Backward pupils, those below the grade to which their age entitles them, may be behind in all subjects, or, as it often happens, behind in certain subjects for which they have little taste. A pupil may be said to be over-age for the grades if he has not completed the first year's work by the time he attains his eighth birthday; the second year's work by the time he is nine years of age, and so on. A critical examination of the roll-books in most schools will show a remarkably large proportion of pupils behind the grade to which their age entitles them. This condition of affairs is not peculiar to New York City, far from it, and it merits the serious attention of all teachers and school officials.

Backwardness in grade work is due to five causes—pupils are irregular in attendance, are of foreign parentage, mentally slow, physically defective, or are poorly classified and poorly taught.

*Irregular Attendance.* Irregularity of attendance is due to sickness, to work, to transfers, to parental neglect, or to truancy. If sickness is the cause of absence from school, the physician should come to the rescue; if absence occurs through work imposed by parents, the courts should intervene; and if through work assumed by children from choice, the **truant** officers should take action; if absence from school occurs through transfers into the schools of a city or from a school in one section of the city to another, the school authorities are in duty bound to see that the loss of time is reduced to a minimum; if absence occurs through parental neglect, parents should be urged to consider the value of an education, and the necessity of co-operating with teachers in securing school attendance, and, if that fails, they should be made to realize that the law takes cognizance of just such cases. A twenty-dollar fine occasionally imposed will prove a salutary lesson.

In the case of truants, it should be clearly understood that, not only has the child a right to an education, but that the state has a right and is in duty bound to compel the child to go to school. Good citizenship implies intelligence and virtue, and the state is vitally interested in the education of the young.

The truant is no criminal, but he may be; in fact, he has entered upon the way, and heroic measures are often necessary to set him aright and to hold him there. Truancy is due to parental neglect, bad environment, evil companions, physical or mental defects, desire to work, or to poor teaching and poor management. The remedy for truancy lies to a large extent in the teachers' hands—better management and better teaching. A personal interest in the individual pupil, sympathy with him in his efforts, attention to his special needs, proper employment, interesting and

profitable work, especially in lines that develop health, strength and manual dexterity, will hold boys in school with hooks of steel. The greater the problem, the greater the opportunity. Many and many a teacher knows no such word as fail. She has enthusiasm and resourcefulness enough to overcome the influences that draw pupils from school. Would that this could be said of every teacher! Commitment to a truant school should be the last resort, but it should be made if all else fails. The boy inclined to truancy should be obliged to go to school, *nolens volens*.

*Foreign Parentage.* Many children of foreign parentage, lately landed in this country, are backward, over-age for their grade, largely because they have only a slight knowledge of the English language. Many of them have had little education in their home country, and so must begin at the bottom.

The main work at first with non-English speaking pupils is to lead them to acquire the ability to speak the English language, easily and correctly. In order to do this they should be placed in a class or group by themselves, if numbers warrant, and effort should center on just one thing—the mastery of the English language. As soon as these pupils have acquired a speaking vocabulary sufficient to enable them to take up the work of a regular grade, they should be placed where their attainments and ability seem to warrant. If there are too few of these non-English speaking pupils to form a group or class, they should be placed in the grade where their age and ability indicate that they belong, rather than in the lowest primary grade, where their attainments in English would seem to indicate that they belong. Mature pupils can learn the English language in the higher grades better than they can in the lower; and as they gain in language power they also gain in knowledge. How stupid it is



for a pupil of considerable maturity to be reading with six-year-old pupils, "*I have a cat. The cat can mew.*"

The method of instruction should be oral—objective, in which the *verb* should receive special attention. By this method pupils are taught to see, to imitate, to do, to hear, to understand, to speak, to read, to write. Sound charts and idiomatic expressions should be much in evidence in teaching these pupils to speak correctly.

*Mental Defectives.* It is asserted by competent authority that at least one-half of one per cent. of the pupils in our schools are sub-normal, with all possible variety of grades, from those who are merely somewhat slow to imbeciles and idiots. From the standpoint of the school only those who are susceptible of intellectual improvement should be considered. For all such there should be a place in the public schools. Special classes should be formed and the children should be given the education that will best meet their needs. The state is under obligations to assist such to become happy, self-supporting, and useful members of society.

Sub-normal development is due to heredity, disease, accident, poor nutrition, or fatigue. The treatment should be such as to arouse dormant energies, to increase the intellectual powers, to cultivate self-control, to train to self-dependence and to some useful occupation. Physical, manual, mental, moral, and æsthetic training should receive attention at every step. Many an intellect, slow of development, will awaken to life and action under proper treatment.

*Physical Defectives.* Under the head of physical defectives are cripples, those having physical deformities, those hard of hearing, those having poor eyesight, and those in an anæmic condition.

Here the school authorities should stand for the poor unfortunates. "The cost, the cost!" is sure to be the

cry. Granted that it will be somewhat more expensive to educate this class than to educate normal children in good physical condition—the classes must be small, special equipment and specially trained teachers must be secured, and often transportation and medical service provided—but the education should be offered. These children have even a greater claim upon the state for an education than have children in perfect physical condition, as they are so nearly helpless, and are sure to be a burden upon their family and the state later on if their education is withheld. The Board of Health should co-operate heartily with the school authorities in educating and caring for children having physical defects. Some of the leading cities have already provided special schools for these children as a part of the public school system. All others must soon do so. In case of only a few physical defectives gathering in any school, it may not be possible to form a special class. These children, however, should receive special attention on the part of the class teacher and physician. They should be allowed to enter and leave school at their convenience, before or after other pupils; they should have the choice seats, those hard of hearing and with poor sight should be allowed to sit well in front; parents and physicians should be consulted frequently and urged to do all that medical science can do to improve the condition of these children. Special attention, expert instruction, prompt and intelligent treatment are imperative.

*Poor Classification and Poor Teaching.* Rigid classification and poor teaching are responsible for more backwardness on the part of pupils than all other causes combined. The object of classification is to enable teacher and pupils to work to the best advantage and to facilitate progress. The advantages of classification are that it increases the length of recita-

tion periods; it leads to thoroughness in presentation; it stimulates pupils; and it educates for community life. The disadvantages are a loss of individuality—all pupils of a class treated alike, as on a dead-level, in a lock-step system; a loss of time to many who are obliged to keep pace with the slower ones; and an unfavorable effect upon dull pupils, who are discouraged in trying to advance with their more gifted mates. It has been said that our system of grading pupils tends "to make the pebbles brighter and the diamonds dimmer," but it is a question if even the pebbles are not more likely to be crushed than made brighter.

The three factors in classifying pupils are age, attainments, and ability. Of these, the latter is the most important, as it gives promise of future possibility.

The essentials to be kept in view in any scheme of classification and promotion are a broad and flexible course of study, short intervals, and individual promotion. The basis for advancing pupils should be *effort*, *progress*, and *possibility*. And the rule to be observed in any individual case for promotion should be, Advance the pupil when the work of the grade above meets his needs better than does the work of his present grade. There should be a premium offered to the teacher promoting the greatest number of pupils out of grade during the term. There need be but little loss in most cases in promoting pupils during the term, providing the connecting links are properly mastered, especially in studies in which the topics are closely dependent. These studies in the elementary grades are few.

In nine cases out of ten, pupils will receive more of an incentive for heroic effort by being promoted out of grade than by being demoted or held back on the shallow plea of *thoroughness*.

The great defect in our methods of teaching, especially in our closely graded city schools, is the tendency on the part of the teacher to hold to mass-teaching, rather than to individual instruction. The teacher is prone to talk, tell, pour in, rather than to impel to effort.

Last February the Board of Education in New York City authorized the Board of Superintendents to establish in the elementary schools three new grades, for the purpose of advancing over-age pupils.

Grade C Classes—To afford non-English speaking pupils an opportunity to acquire speedily the ability to speak, read and write the English language.

Grade D Classes—To accommodate pupils who are soon to be fourteen years of age, who desire to obtain employment certificates, and who have no prospect of completing the elementary school course.

Grade E Classes—To afford pupils over the normal age in the grades below 7A an opportunity to make special preparation for admission to the 7A grade, and by so doing to shorten the time necessary to complete the work of the elementary schools.

As a result, hundreds of these special classes have been formed, to the great advantage of the pupils taught. Several of Grade D classes—classes for pupils who desire employment certificates and who have nearly completed their one hundred and thirty (130) days of schooling since they were thirteen years of age—have been established in our vacation schools this summer.

Is it possible, then, even by resorting to the Elizabeth, Galveston, Batavia, Oskosh or other system, to avoid having backward pupils? *By no means.* The Lord has not distributed grey matter equally among our school children. All we can hope to do is to reduce considerably the number of backward pupils, and

to give many of them a fairer chance than they have ever had before.

The special requirements are suitable rooms and proper equipment—large and well lighted rooms, with plenty of aisle space, movable and adjustable desks and seats, and an abundance of illustrative material; small classes, each class not to exceed thirty pupils, and in the case of physical and mental defectives, not over fifteen or eighteen pupils; a course of study outlined to meet the needs—not of children in general, but of these particular pupils; a flexible system of classification that gives heed to individuals rather than to masses; specially qualified teachers—teachers who have a natural aptness for the work, as patience, tact, resourcefulness, love of children, and faith in humanity—and who are enthusiastic students of child nature and school problems, with expert knowledge enough to recognize and interpret defects; and suitable instruction and sensible management. Such teachers as those indicated can be found with a little effort, especially if the salary schedule gives recognition to special work and superior merit, as it should. The instruction should place great emphasis upon work that is interesting and of value, such as manual and industrial training, civic and moral training, physical exercises, excursions to places and objects of interest. The key to success is *interest*, and the teacher is wise who causes every subject to breathe with life.

The management should be kind and sympathetic. If the pupil sees that his teacher is deeply interested in him—sympathetic, kind, appreciative—he will respond gloriously. As Dr. Johnstone puts it, "What we need is forward teachers for backward pupils."

The spirit of modern education at its best, of education that deals with individuals rather than with masses, especially of backward and unpromising pupils,

is found in the parable of the lost sheep: "How think ye? If a man have an hundred sheep, and one of them be gone astray, doth he not leave the ninety and nine, and goeth into the mountains and seeketh that which is gone astray? And if so be that he find it, verily I say unto you, he rejoiceth more of that sheep than of the ninety and nine that went not astray. Even so it is not the will of your Father which is in heaven, that one of these little ones should perish."

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## ONE OF THE PROBLEMS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF CITY SCHOOLS—HOW TO SECURE THE TWO KINDS OF ATTENTION.

HON. WM. T. HARRIS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

We are school superintendents and school directors gathered here—we may "talk shop" here.

I define the chief work of the superintendent—to discover the good devices invented by each of his teachers, and make them the property of all of his teachers.

Aristotle said that by art man can avail himself of the experience of others. Man has a theory of his doing, and his practice of that theory is an Art.

The teaching of an art saves an immense amount of waste in life. Art is preserved experience. Art well taught arms the doer with the experience of the past. Art makes vicarious experience possible. You and I reap what others learned by bitter experience; we profit by their mistakes and consequent grief and sorrow, as well as by their moments of success and consequent rejoicing.



Art means all this vicarious living and experience.

And the superintendent of schools finds his highest function in collecting experience from each, and distributing it to all.

Art must be used to develop individual initiative, as well as to supplement personal shortcomings.

I present this morning as my contribution to your deliberations one of the most important devices of organization and instruction, namely, the two kinds of attention—the division of the pupils under each teacher into two classes with alternate periods of study and recitation, alternate preparation of the lessons and discussion of it by the class with the teacher.

No matter what the lesson is, whether language, mathematics, history, geography, grammar, manual training, cooking lessons, all these require two kinds of industry—the private individual industry and the social industry of class work.

Let me discuss this more at length. Industry may be of various kinds, but the industry of the school is essentially the study of the book. The pupil is to add to his own feeble and undeveloped powers of thought and observation, these faculties as exhibited in the strongest of his race. The printed page is the chief means by which he adds to his own observation and reflection what has been observed and thought by fellow-men specially gifted in these things. The pupil shall learn by mastering his text-book how to master all books—how to use that greatest of all instruments of culture, the library. He shall emancipate himself by this means from mere oral instruction. In the case of oral instruction the pupil must wait upon the leisure of the teacher, trusting to his memory or writing down the teacher's words and pondering them on some future occasion. In the presence of the book he can take the sentences one by one and reflect care-

fully upon the meaning of each word and each sentence. The book waits upon his leisure. The book contains the most systematic presentation of its author's ideas. Through the book the observers and thinkers of the past become present. Those of distant and inaccessible countries come to his side. This shows us the significance of the kind of labor which the pupil performs in his school industry.

I can describe the nature of the schoolroom industry best by explaining the two kinds of attention which the pupil must cultivate and exercise in the schoolroom. There is, first, the attention which the class must give collectively to the recitation and to the teacher who conducts it; and there is, second, the individual industry of the pupil working by himself. It is in the development of these two kinds of attention that the chief value of the class recitation consists. In the recitation, as it is called by us in America (or in the *lesson*, as it is called by English educators), the teacher examines the work of his pupils, criticises it, and discusses its methods and results. The pupils in the class all give attention to the questions of the teacher and to the answers of their fellow pupils. Each one learns both: positive and negative things regarding the results of his own studies of the lesson. He finds some of his fellow-pupils less able than himself to grasp certain points in the subject of study. He finds others who are more able than himself—pupils who have seen farther than himself and developed new phases that had escaped his attention. He is surprised, too, at sides and points of view which the teacher has pointed out; items of information or critical points of view that had escaped his own attention and the attention of his fellow-pupils in the class. The pupil gains an insight into human nature such as he never had before. He sees the weaknesses and the

strength of his fellows; he sees the superiority manifested by the teacher who is maturer than he, and who has reinforced his own observation and insight by the observation and insight of observers and thinkers as recorded in books. He measures himself by these standards and comes to that most important of all knowledge—self-knowledge.

This kind of attention, which he exercises in lessons or class exercises, is a kind of attention which may be called critical alertness directed outward to the expression of other minds, namely, of his fellow-pupils and teacher. Step by step he watches carefully the unfolding of the lesson, comparing what is said with what he has already learned by his own effort. After the recitation is over, he takes up the work of individual preparation of another lesson, but he has improved in some respect his method, because he is now alert in some new direction. He has an intellectual curiosity in some new field that he had not before observed; what the teacher has said or what some bright pupil has said gives him a hint of a new line of inquiry which he ought to have carried, but did not carry on in his mind when he was preparing his lesson of the day before. Now he is consciously alert in this new direction, and he reaps a harvest of new ideas that would have been passed over in neglect had he not received the benefits of the kind of attention which I call "critical alertness" in the work of recitation or lesson.

This kind of attention is something that cannot be developed by the pupil in any other way so well as in that school invention called the "recitation" or "lesson."

Let us now consider the other kind of attention which the pupil cultivates and exercises in school. While pupils of one class are reciting, the pupils of the other class are preparing their lesson. Each in-

dividual is, or should be, absorbed in the work of preparation, not jointly with his fellows, questioning them or answering them, but by absorption on the part of each in his own work, without reference to the other pupils in the room or the teacher; each one must be able to study his own book and resist the tendency to distraction which comes from the lesson or recitation that is going on with the other class. To shut out from one's mind all objects that do not concern it and concentrate one's thoughts and observations upon a special given subject, whether it be a scientific presentation of the text book, or whether it be the investigation of some subject by means of objects themselves, or by the use of many books—this kind of attention is of the utmost importance. It is that of individual industry—the absorption of the mind upon its work without reference to fellow-pupils or the teacher; while the other kind is that of critical alertness. Critical alertness follows the thoughts of others; takes an active part in the dialogue which is going on. The ancients call this business of questions and answers and critical alertness the dialectic, and this kind of attention is that which is trained in dialectic. But the attention which is absorbed upon its object is a different matter, although of equal importance. The pupil should learn how to neglect the distracting circumstances of the schoolroom, the movements of pupils in the tactics of the class, the dialectic of question and answer going on with illustration and points of interest, and equally the work of his fellow-pupils in the class preparing themselves by absorbing study like his own, and give his whole attention to the mastery of his task by himself. He lets outside events all slip by him unnoticed, disciplining himself to abstract his attention from them and to hold himself in utter indifference to these outside events. He

brings to bear his best intellect upon the problems of his task, critically questioning the meaning of his author, and applies himself to the work of verifying by his own observation and reflection what is compiled for him in the text-book. He is learning by this private industry how to reinforce himself by the work of his fellow-men; he cannot help himself through the help of others unless he verify their results. Verification is always an act of self-activity. Memorizing the text of the book, committing to memory what has been told one, this is not self-help until the internal work of verification has been accomplished.

The second kind of attention that we are here considering has, therefore, its most important features in verification. What some one else has seen and recorded, the pupil must see for himself, if possible. What some one else has reasoned out by inference he must reason out for himself, and test the result by the activity of his own intellect.

At first the pupil finds himself with feeble will-power and unable to absorb himself in his own task. He is easily distracted by what is going on around him. By using his moral will in self-control he gains strength from day to day in concentrating his attention and in neglecting all that is not essential in his individual industry.

If the school teaches only one of these two kinds of attention it neglects another very important part of school instruction.

## MORAL TRAINING AT SCHOOL.

HON. NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER,  
HARRISBURG, PA.

Whenever anything goes wrong in the life of the nation, the people look to the school for a remedy. If the driver is cruel to his horse, the school must give lessons upon the humane treatment of animals. If drunkenness or the cigarette saps the life and vigor of the people, the school must teach the effects of alcohol and narcotics upon the human system. If vaccination is neglected, the school is the means through which smallpox is to be made impossible. If the forests are in danger of extinction, the schools must celebrate Arbor day in order that children may learn how to plant trees. If the wane of the apprentice system makes it difficult for the boy to learn a trade, manual training must be introduced into the curriculum in order that the boy may learn how to use the tools which are fundamental in the handicrafts. If the housewife finds it difficult to get help, the schools must teach cooking, sewing, and dressmaking under the high sounding name of Domestic Science. If too many youth leave the farm for the city, the school is expected to instil an interest in rural life by teaching the elements of agriculture. The latest claimants for recognition point in diametrically opposite directions.

On the one hand the teachers of the public schools are to be asked to raise by contributions from the children four hundred thousand dollars for the construction of a colossal bronze battleship in honor of the heroes of the Maine; and on the other the schools are to promote international arbitration by celebrating the 18th of May in commemoration of the establishment of The Hague Tribunal. No prophet can foretell the



diverse and complex problems which will be shied at the school in the next fifty years, and the teacher is expected to solve them all for the modest compensation of \$35 per month.

It can be shown that instruction in manual training, domestic science and the laws of health is essential to complete living, and that the school can assist in the solution of some of the other problems which the teacher has been asked to assume, but today I turn from these to a problem of more fundamental importance, I refer to moral training in the public schools.

Of late, there has been a growing conviction that the moral and religious instruction of children is neglected in the home; women's clubs and other organizations are already demanding the introduction of formal instruction in ethics and religion. Some deem it a sufficient answer to say that education is of two kinds, one kind being that which is given at school and which is spoken of as schooling, whilst the other must be acquired out of school and beyond the school.

Whenever this distinction is ignored or neglected, the school is apt to be blamed for everything that goes wrong in the home, in the church, in the state, in society, or in the subsequent career of the pupil. The test question, however, is: How can a good school supply what is neglected in the home and outside of the school? Very few of those who criticise the public schools, calling them godless, irreligious, and wanting in ethical instruction, seem to realize what a good school accomplishes in moral training, while both teacher and pupil are busy with the rudiments of an English education. The habits of accuracy, punctuality, industry, obedience, honesty, politeness and self-restraint, which are inculcated in every good school, become virtues when the will consciously enters into them.

Call these school virtues the natural virtues if you will; without them the individual is out of place in any store, bank, counting house or industrial establishment, even though he can repeat the entire catechism or chapter after chapter from the sacred Scriptures.

The aim of every school is the teaching of truth; and the corresponding virtue is veracity. Did you ever stop to think how much is gained in the moral life of the pupil if he is taught to tell the truth when asked about his age? In some parts of this country the average child has three ages. The first is the age which is obtained by consulting the family Bible or the baptismal certificate. It is the real or correct age, and is given when there is nothing to be gained by deception or concealment. The second age of the child is the factory age. It is one or two years in advance of the real age and is given when the pupil wishes to go to work before the law allows him to do so, or when the minor wishes to get a drink contrary to law. These forms of law-breaking naturally lead to the more serious forms of lawlessness known as crimes. The third age of the child is the railway age. It is always less than the real age. The child is taught to give this diminished age in order that it may ride free when it should pay half-fare, or ride for half-fare when it should pay full-fare. From stealing a ride there is an easy transition to other forms of fraud and dishonesty. The boy who cheats the railway is apt to develop into the man who is glad for an opportunity to defraud the municipality, the Commonwealth, the federal government. The very atmosphere of a good school fosters the habit of truthfulness. If children are taught to love the truth and to scorn a lie, the foundation is laid for honesty towards the employer, the corporation, the municipality, the state and the nation.

The school furnishes splendid opportunities for the development of civic virtues. The state of Pennsylvania furnishes text-books and supplies free to the pupils of the public schools. This saves about 50 per cent of the total cost of the books under the former system, which compelled the parents to buy the books. The free text-book law furnishes a splendid opportunity for lessons upon the care of public property. In many schools the books furnished at public expense are better kept and better cared for than were the books bought by the parents. The school house, the school grounds, the furniture are public property. In the care of these the pupil gets his first lessons in civic pride and civic virtue.

Very many friends of the public school imagine that the moral life of the nation depends upon the daily reading of the Bible during opening exercises. The mere reading of the Bible can be magnified out of all proportion to its real value and influence. The mere fact that the Bible is read in the school may mean little or it may mean much in the way of moral and religious instruction. Everything depends upon the way and the spirit in which it is read. Some read it involuntarily or as a perfunctory matter; others read it to find cases of questionable morality; still others to find grammatical puzzles or paradoxical statements. Such reading of the good book has little or no ethical value.

In such instances it were better to omit the reading of the Bible; the abuse of the book for such purposes may destroy all reverence for its sacred pages. When teacher and pupil read the sacred scriptures for the sake of grasping the truths which lie at the basis of religion and morality, the exercise becomes a most efficient means of moral training. No better material for moral and religious instruction can be found than

that which is contained in the Old Testament. Its historical incidents have for ages been used for this purpose, and their educational value is as great today as it was at any period during the separate existence of the Jews as a nation. It is to be regretted that the rising generation is not as familiar with the lives of the patriarchs as were our forefathers in the days when the Bible was used as a school reader. But very many of the same moral lessons can be given incidentally during the hours devoted to American history. The history of our country is full of material that is well adapted for ethical instruction. Columbus fell upon his knees and offered a prayer of thanksgiving when he landed upon the shores of the New World. His devout example can not fail to make a lasting impression upon the heart and life of the pupil. The existence of God is assumed in the oath of office which every President of the United States is required to take when he is inducted into office. The teacher may occupy one of three attitudes towards this official act, which certainly has in it a religious element. The teacher may be hostile to all religion, and may go out of his way to find an opportunity for ridiculing the religious faith of Columbus and Washington. Or the attitude of the teacher may be one of indifference. The teacher who is never seen at church, who never offers a prayer, and who speaks of the acts of devout men as if these acts were matters of indifference, will beget in the minds of the pupils a similar frame of mind unless, perchance, his conduct drives the pupils to the feeling of condemnation for his indifference to religion.

The third attitude which it is possible for a teacher to take is that of sympathy with, and respect for, all ceremonies in which the existence of God is recognized and acknowledged. Religion is the sense of obligation and devotion which the creature owes to the Creator.

Belief in a Divine Being and in future rewards and punishments lies at the basis of our civil institutions, and no pupil can be educated for his future duties as an American citizen if the school ignores the existence of God, and assumes an attitude of hostility or indifference towards religion.

For instruction on the plane of civic virtue there is abundant material in our history. Perhaps the hardest lesson to learn is that it is the patriotic duty of the citizen to pay a just share of tax for the support of the government and the education of the people. It is easy to wave a flag and make a noise on the Fourth of July, but the honest payment of tax is a more difficult, though less ostentatious, display of patriotism. To carry a gun in a military parade is a bit of display which the heart delights in, but to pay a tax is a civic duty for which most people have very little heart.

John Fiske claims that the first lesson in civics should be a lesson on taxation. The opportunity for such a lesson is presented when the causes of the American Revolution are studied. In studying taxation without representation a little time can be spent in studying taxation from the comparative point of view. On learning how much tax is paid by the average inhabitant of England or Continental Europe, especially of Russia and Turkey, the pupil will rejoice that his lot has been cast under the Stars and Stripes. Moreover, he will realize that, if our municipalities keep on piling debt upon debt, a point must, in no long time, be reached at which there will no longer be money enough to give every child all the education which it is willing to take.

The sacredness of the ballot is another lesson which can easily be taught in connection with the history of

the American Revolution. General Reed was offered £10,000, together with any office in his majesty's gift, if he would desert the colonies and join the loyalists. Upon the floor of the Continental Congress this patriot declared: "I am not worth purchasing, but such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy my vote." When the young man goes to the ballot box for the first time he should say to himself: "I may not be worth buying, but, such as I am, the ward boss is not rich enough to buy my vote."

Our government is safe so long as the people believe in the judiciary and the ballot box. So soon as money can buy verdicts or office, the people grow ripe for revolution. Our judicial system contains one feature not found in European systems that is designed to guarantee the rights of the individual. Every law can be tested in the courts, and, if found unconstitutional, it is set aside in spite of legislative and executive approval. So profound is the faith of the people in the Constitution that many a citizen believes himself possessed of the right to declare legislation unconstitutional. This is a mistake. The citizen has the right to test the constitutionality of legislation in the courts of law; but he cannot arrogate to himself a power which has been delegated to judges learned in the law. When studying the formation of the Federal Constitution the pupil can be inspired with a feeling of respect for judges whose duty it is to interpret our laws and to impose penalties for their violation.

The foregoing instances suffice to indicate what a wealth of material our history affords for ethical instruction. History teaches morality by example. The deeds of heroic devotion to a noble cause, of fidelity to duty under trying circumstances, of commendable bravery in naval and military service, beget a spirit capable of similar service when the call to arms is



heard. Justice to an enemy, toleration for the honest opinions of others, willingness to help the suffering and the down-trodden, a determination to serve one's country, and, if need be, to die in its defence,—these are but a few examples of the ethical results of good teaching in the department of American history.

The greatest teacher of all the ages was a teacher of morality and religion. The teaching of many truths in ethics and denominational religion must be left to the church which He founded and to the homes and Sunday schools, where He reigns supreme. The school can not, and should not, try to usurp the functions of the home and the religious society, but it can, without formal lessons, inspire a sense of duty to God and develop the virtues which are essential to good citizenship and to true manhood and womanhood.

## DEPARTMENT SESSIONS.

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### Department of School Administration.

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#### THE MUTUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF PRINCIPAL AND SUPERINTENDENT.

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I shall take the liberty to slightly change my subject and make it read "A Study of the School Principal." I do this that I may put the emphasis on the principal whose function has become one of overshadowing importance in the modern school system. I hope that the relation of superintendent and principal will still be in evidence.

In the first stage of the development of the school principal he was the only teacher. He was responsible for the discipline and the courses of study. Discipline always implied coercion. The courses of study for all except the beginners reminds one of the underground cable that formerly dragged the street cars over a given length of track in a great city. This course of study hooked up the pupil at the beginning of the book at the beginning of each term and the class always went through the book in ten weeks. Each subject was as isolated from every other as were the school and schoolmaster from the community.

The second phase of the history of the school principal was marked by a tremendous decrease of authority. With the appearance of the superintendent,

the principal was assigned the children of a section or fragment of a community, and these might be in primary, intermediate or grammar grades. The number of pupils in a room, the assignment of teachers, the course of study must all be approved.

At grade institutes the methods of study and instruction are minutely considered, suggestive lessons are given and pedagogical courses laid out for the principal and his (not his) teachers.

Special teachers, from two to six in number, teach new subjects that the principal is supposed to know very little about. Long ago, some states and cities decreed that neither the principal nor teacher should strike a blow. The pupil must be self-directive as he is self-active. Discipline is a result of interest and voluntary attention. The school is a smooth running, frictionless machine that calls for no coercion, or if will power is to be exercised in directing the will of the pupil, it is furnished by the teacher. An up-to-date teacher never refers a case to the principal. Or, if once in a great while an incorrigible or a truant appears, the principal can only appeal to the parent. If this fails the principal, the teacher, the parent and child, together, must meet at the office of the superintendent and the discipline consists of a friendly and heart-to-heart talk among all present. Mutual promises are made by the offender and his parents that the school shall be relieved of the nuisance and this promise is generally kept.

Undoubtedly the parent sometimes employs old-fashioned methods of punishment at home after the interview, but the principal never, or, if he does, it must be after one sunset, in the presence of two witnesses, and must be followed immediately by a written description of the method and quantity of chastisement, and is often preceded by permission obtained

from the parent and the superintendent. No wonder a principal prefers not to punish under such conditions. Unless one can warm up to the occasion by due admonition and by taking a boy by the collar and dancing him to the basement, and by giving the deserved chastisement at once, there is no satisfaction in the experience at all. It is usually no exaggeration to say that it is often very difficult, indeed, for a parent or superintendent to persuade a principal to administer corporal punishment. Incidentally, what a calm has possessed the life of the principal. No one knows this better than he does. He used to thrash a child about every day and sometimes more than one. Now he affirms that the very thought of causing a child pain is unendurable. All this is directly true to the facts in the best schools and school systems everywhere.

In this possible complete loss of original authority and apparent importance, there was a chance for the principal to become a mere figurehead. Pupils, teachers and parents knew all about the great changes which sometimes all come about within a year. The principal conformed, perhaps, but you could hardly expect him to do more. It takes years for a man to become really enthusiastic in assisting in such a revolution in his own case. He might resign or he might secretly remain disloyal, or he might under pressure become pliant, uncertain and lose his manhood. He might and often has become a nonentity, a shade seen only now and then by the children, and referred to in pity or contempt by those who formerly admired him. This is no exaggeration, either, and logically it began to appear that the principal was no longer a necessity. Of course, some one in authority must appear, occasionally, but such a person known as a district principal was in charge of several buildings. This elimination

of the local principal has gone so far as to become the rule in this city and many others.

At the present moment, there is little public discussion of the school principal. The district system appears to hold its own, largely for financial reasons, but meanwhile an entirely new type of school principal is in sight. This principal is shorn of his ancient authority, but he is everywhere an original force. He is both an executive and a leader. He is responsible for carrying into effect the ideas of other people, and yet is a power in the school and in the community. A brief description of his activities will give a good picture of the present-day school itself.

The modern school of the first order has an attractive exterior. A man, a woman, a home or a school, equally, has personality. Little touches here and there set off the individual and give him a rating. There is an indefinable something about the exterior of an attractive home that establishes its individuality, and that distinguishes it from all other homes. The school-house is no exception, and a live school principal is as sensitive about his school building as about his place of abode. He is as particular about his school lawn as about his shoes or his necktie. They are all parts of himself. Not only he and his boys wheel loam to grade and sod to turf the school yard, but teachers and children all share in planting vines, trees, flowers and vegetable gardens, which they guard with the most jealous care. No sign is needed to keep children or neighbors or strangers off the grass. Flowers bloom and fade and are never disturbed, for the entire neighborhood seems to have a joint interest in the school garden. I have seen in a great city acres of flowers and vegetables under cultivation, streets for half a mile lined with flowers and set with young trees by school children, all as safe from injury as if they

were within an English hedge. In the midst of this bower, once a spot so barren and desolate as to be repulsive and to invite abuse, we see the principal once so fierce and arbitrary, now in sweet companionship with children. Let it be said that this picture is due wholly to the initiative of the principal and that his leadership alone can bring such a transformation to pass.

The leadership of a wide-awake principal is just as evident within as without the school building. At least a few pictures and some statuary are seen about in the halls and in the schoolrooms. The manual training classes and the sewing classes have contributed some things of beauty in which they have common interest and common ownership. There is good housekeeping, and the children co-operate with the janitor in keeping the house clean and wholesome within and without. All this is incidental, but it is coming to be a most vital part of good education and the principal who fails to comprehend its value and necessity is fast asleep and only a survival of doubtful value.

The principal should make himself felt in connection with the course of study and the methods of instruction. Geography, history, literature, nature study and spelling offer wide choices. Only types of these studies can be undertaken and the selection of these types must be made intelligently. The principal should be familiar with and responsible for every set of choices of every teacher, at least twice each year. The principal should follow constantly the work of each special teacher in music, drawing, physical training and manual training, and pronounce upon its success, and that is not saying that he should be a specialist in any one of these. He should know the strength and weakness of every individual teacher, ready to criticise and to



encourage—by every teacher recognized as a friend and helper in the best sense of the word.

The principal of this model establishment becomes a centre of influence in the community. Once or twice every year the parents are present in large numbers to see the work of their children and to co-operate in raising funds to decorate the school building. They form parents' organizations to promote community education generally.

In such an atmosphere the old-time so-called school discipline has practically disappeared. The new and more human subjects of the curriculum call for self-activity, and as a rule, pupils love to go to school. Discipline is now mostly merely directive and not corrective. The principal effaces himself and is only one of several factors in discipline. If a case calling for discipline does appear, he is one of five persons who form a court in the presence of which the offender sits for judgment or reprimand.

Character, community, country, are other worthy themes that call for attention and constant oversight in the making and training of American citizens in the public schools. Anyone of all of these may well awaken the enthusiasm of any workers in the educational field. Any man who can give proper form and movement to this organism that we call a public school may become the greatest character builder of the age. The very foundations of the nation are at stake. The public school alone can reach the child and the home of the foreigner who is often in the majority in our cities. The ministry of the public school teacher is welcome in the alien home and often no other civilizing force can cross that threshold. The old-time principal would be as helpless to reform and reconstruct this household as a burly policeman. The standard modern school principal approaches and represents a new

ideal. He is a Joshua, a veritable evolution quickly accomplished to meet the need of the hour, to my mind indispensable to the full success of our school system and to our civilization. No private school, no set of unguided and uninspired teachers could ever reach into the community, whether rich or poor, and shape and adapt to present needs these diverse elements in the community. The type is well established and may be studied and advertised and identified, and recognized as different from all its contemporaries and predecessors, and we must give him place and honor and full responsibility.

In conclusion, what shall we say as to the relations existing between the superintendent and principal?

First, the superintendent is responsible for the existence of the proper ideal toward which the principal shall work. This ideal is always near at hand. Here and there in every community is at least one principal whose work embodies all that is best and most inspiring, all that I have suggested, who is near to the ideal. This type may be emphasized and a premium put upon it. The rest depends upon the vision and conviction and carrying power of the superintendent himself.

Second, there should be a good understanding between the superintendent and the principal. The superintendent should insure freedom to both principal and teachers. He should be ready to offer encouragement and suggestion, and cultivate faithfully the closest possible professional and, if possible, social relation. The superintendent must also practice self-effacement. His leadership must be firm and strong, but he is not much in sight. He provides good conditions but he trusts his associates, he holds them to strict account and is in closest touch with all their movements, but they have his confidence, frequently

call him into their councils, but they stand alone on the fighting line.

His work is plain before him, no other can do the great task assigned him, and it remains for us to prepare the way and to give him room. Our relations with him are merely incidental, natural, logical, a result and not a cause.

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## FUNDAMENTALS IN SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

HON. WILLIAM T. HARRIS,  
WASHINGTON, D. C.

(Editorial)

This address, while largely technical, was illumined for the outsider by the numerous anecdotes which Mr. Harris gave from his long experience with principals and teachers. He made a strong plea for a new method in conducting classroom work, that of dividing the room into two divisions for alternate preparation and discussion instead of having the entire class recite or study at the same time. This method, he said, would bring out in the pupils two kinds of attention, that of critical alertness during the "recitation" (which term he considered not as well chosen as the corresponding English school term "lesson"), and the absorbing attention to the book during the study periods, in which the pupil does not notice any outside influences.

The industry of the school is essentially the study of the book, and the child should be taught to use the library, "the greatest instrument in education." By the method of recitations advocated by the speaker, the student developed the absorbing attention of industry and the distracting influences of the school-

room were disregarded. The chief defect of the oral method of recitation was that it distracted the attention of those who were at study, and it is the fault of our system that we do not make the recitation of greatest importance, as it is not the reciting, but hearing others recite which is the most important work of the class.

Mr. Harris told of a principal in a western school who had had no success until transferred and told of this method, which he put into effect with such success that his school became the model of the city and was visited by superintendents from all over the state.

He told of two teachers who had been "chronic failures for nine years," who were sent to this principal and after a few months, when he visited the school, he found "the most remarkable transformation in the history of petticoats," due entirely to this new method of instruction.

The various methods used by incompetent teachers were also portrayed by the speaker with laughable verisimilitude, and the whining questioner, with the "butter-in," too, brought to all the atmosphere of the small school, in which teachers are called upon to give instruction in everything from the alphabet to algebra.

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## THE RELATION OF THEORIST AND PRACTITIONER IN EDUCATIONAL WORK.

DR. HENRY SUZZALLO,  
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The growing specialization of modern life has not affected modern industry alone. It has entered into every sphere of our modern life. Wherever com-

plexity has fallen upon life, both the advantage and the disadvantage of specialized service have entered. The school, with its work of public education for life in a complex world, has, in its turn, come into the fortune and the misfortune of the new order of things.

As our people have grown less and less homogeneous with the growing sharpness of division between city and country life, with the increased foreign immigration, with the separation of industrial classes, the school which could take care of all of these has become less like the school of a century ago. Day schools and night schools, liberal and technical schools, regular and truant schools, kindergartens and universities, vacation classes and boys' clubs—all these are the marks of the specialization of institutions within the educational field.

Specialization in the institutions used for the education of society has led to the specialization of the works within these special fields. The day school teacher is not always fitted to teach in the night classes of the social settlement, nor the high school teacher in the kindergarten. Even the men who are charged with the general supervision of all the special servants and schools have specialized. The educational thinker, on the one hand, has become more and more of an educational theorist, and the educational supervisor has become more and more immersed in the practical routine of his every-day necessities. The result is the one that is obvious everywhere in society—in increased efficiency along a special line of responsibility, but with it has come the price of over-emphasis and isolation of the particular field.

#### THEORIST AND PRACTITIONER.

This isolation and over-emphasis is evident in the view of education taken by different men. To the busi-

ness man, with little view beyond his work, the aim of education is narrowly utilitarian. He sees in the school an institution which has, from his point of view, largely failed to turn out men for the business struggle of life. He views the situation from his own hill top and from his own direction, totally oblivious that there are wider vistas that survey many sides of the world-life and its necessities.

The average politician prates about the schools and American citizenship, when citizenship to him is the ability to vote and hold office, to hold intelligent opinion upon certain public questions and to understand certain facts connected with the machinery of democratic government. The larger underlying necessities of a sound political life, which lie in the every-day conduct of human affairs, in the "decencies and graces" of social life, in the normal relationships of men, are missed. He has his own hill top, after all—like the man of business. And its vista is as restricted. It is a different, small hill, and that is all.

One can come closer to the educational circle and find as narrow views where the ordinary expectation is for better things. Many a college professor will tell you that the object of education is a certain kind of worn-out "formal discipline" long since rejected by those who know the mental make-up of man. He will tell you that the man is to be trained in certain powers without much reference to the particular facts of life which he will face when those powers are called into play. He will manifest no little scorn of the view that these powers may be best cultivated with practical subjects, and he will offer you Greek and Latin instead, as though some hidden advantage lurked in their very historic remoteness from men's present lives. After all, his, too, is a little hill top—and his view encompassed with narrow boundaries.



From their own activities these men view the world and its problems, and the school which serves the world and its problems, in fragments. The whole-world view is not theirs. Against the isolation and narrowness of these, the educational world has set up a class of men to care for the work of public education in all its parts, to see that it stands for the general good and not the special interest. These men are the educational supervisors, the educational theorist and the educational superintendent, one watching over the thought that guides and controls educational practice, the other watching over the practice which is to bring social results. But even here, however, specialization has entered. The theorist and the practitioner have their own points of view and their own points of opposition.

#### OPPOSITION BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE.

Theory and practice have long seemed to be in opposition in the educational world. The contest began long before the creation of the special professional offices of theorist and superintendent. It is born of the time-old opposition between philosopher and publicist.

There was a time perhaps when this contrast of the theoretic and the practical man did not exist in educational history. Certainly such publicists as Moses and Lycurgus played some part in the training or educating of their peoples! They wrote no theories of education, their thoughts were buried in their practical acts, but they existed in the very policy of reform. They were there by implication.

Later, philosophy was born into the world, in the days of intellectual Greece, and the first opposition of thinker and worker in education appears in education

as it appears in life. Xenophon was not the last statesman-educator to write out his educational beliefs. Nor was Plato the last philosopher-educator to systematize his educational opinions. Luther and Jefferson and Mann are worthy public men who have followed in the wake of Xenophon's example. Aristotle and Locke and Rousseau are philosophers who found in Plato a prototype.

The time came when the gap was widened. Soon the public man and the philosopher, bending from their wider tasks, could not do and think for education with sufficient adequacy; a group of educational workers and thinkers rise with the growth in importance of educational work. Greene of Springfield, Bishop of Providence, and the other early school superintendents were the specialized professional descendants of such statesmen-educators as Horace Mann and Thomas Jefferson. On the other hand, such school men as Comenius and Pestalozzi and other early educational theorists were the specialized professional followers of the philosopher-educators. Alike, these two groups of men rose from the professional ranks. They did not approach the field of education, practical or theoretic, from some other vocation. But they faced each other with the distrust mutual with philosopher and publicist. The result has been misunderstanding and hostility.

#### RECONCILIATION.

Between the educational theorist and the educational practitioner, two men with a common aim, there must be some unifying ground that will lead to the abolition of an evident antagonism. Perhaps some higher view of the situation will throw them into the light as supplementary activities. The higher view is for the trained leader, with scholarship and experience, to

comprehend inclusively. Of these there are not enough. At hand are institutions for the training of elementary teachers and secondary school instructors in professional matters. The Normal school cares for the first and the University departments of education are caring for the second. But the training of educational leaders has been neglected. For them, little definite provision has been made. Even discussion upon the subject has been lacking. In charge of our theory and our supervision we have had, too often, men unfitted for a task of such breadth. The weakness of the doctor of philosophy, with wide scholarship and little experience in the office of school superintendent, has been evident too many times. He has done little better in the chairs of educational theory. But the man of long experience and little scholarship, who has risen from the ranks, has been equally a disappointment. The most of his kind have been slaves to their own and the profession's traditions. They have not been progressive because they have not had the broad view of the situation, nor the knowledge and power to command it.

Educational evolution has contributed its specializations. Among these is the subdivision of its functionaries into educational theorists and educational practitioners. In spite of its limitations, plain enough to us, it has been a gain. We want not to lose what we have gained. We want to keep our profit, but with the least amount of compensating loss. Let theorist and practitioner perform their respective labors. Each has a constructive work to do. But each must do with the sense that each performs but a portion of the total of processes. Each must have a deep and broad appreciation of the work of the other. In this appreciation lies the possibility of overcoming a traditional opposition.

The highest meanings of theory and practice come only when the two are held in close relation to each other. This fact gives value to the services of theorists and practitioners. As theory has no worth save as it applies itself to future conduct; so practice, mere practice, is a stagnant, dead routine when it does not move upward by the suggestion of a theory of possible conditions far better than the gross reality. So the theorist has thought in vain, done an idle task, if he has not builded from the facts well known to the practitioner, and the man in the practical field has lost the outlook that will give meaning to his work if he has not seen beyond his devices into the operation of laws of development which the theorist points out. What these two sets of workers need is the common vision, which relates their differing activities.

From the very nature of the case, they will always be somewhat different. The man in charge of a great school system will always lay the greatest emphasis upon gathering together as many of the means of successful adjustment as the profession has known. He will be interested in the positive results of his system. The theorist will see the misadjustments of everyday education. His theory is the phoenix which arises above the destructive elements in school life. He will be interested in change that will overcome defect. He will be a radical critic and a radical, where his supplementary worker, interested in stability, will be a constructivist and a conservative. One will insist constantly on a higher and larger kind of efficiency and upon a greater economy in the educative process. The other will work near to the past, seeing that the old way has turned out men who, after all, have been good men, preferring not to economize by reducing the factor of safety. Through the work of them both will come real progress. The conservative and the

radical, each tugging in his own direction for a needed element, will keep humanity and its education in the middle of the road.

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### PRIMARY RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT.

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A complete treatise on the duties of the superintendent will discuss supervision, not merely from the superintendent's point of view, but also from the viewpoint of the teacher, the pupil, and the taxpayer.

It is cruel sport to ask a newly-elected superintendent: "How does the superintendent earn his salary?" The answer often indicates that he has thought more of drawing a salary than of earning it. A superintendent who follows a vigorous policy of doing nothing may impress others with his multifarious activity without accomplishing anything for the uplifting of the schools. Sometimes a superintendent may earn his salary by preventing the waste of money in the purchase of useless appliances, in the adoption of needless fads, and in the erection of buildings involving extravagant contracts. Generally the question must be argued from a different point of view. An industrial establishment loses \$50,000 in a single year. A new superintendent is placed in charge. By rearranging the machinery, re-organizing the workmen, and saving the waste of raw material, he saves this loss and leaves the firm with \$75,000 profit at the end of the year. Did he earn his salary of five thousand dollars? The school has to do with children, who are far more valuable than the raw material of a factory.

The best asset of a community is brains. By saving the time and energy of teachers and pupils, and by saving from waste the brains entrusted to his care, the superintendent may earn many times his salary, and thus fulfil his duty to render an equivalent for what he gets in pay. The worst waste at school results from worry. Children have rights as well as duties. One of their rights is the right to be happy at school. How can the child be happy at school if the teacher is not happy in her work? How can teachers be happy if they are continually worried by unreasonable demands on the part of the public and the School Board? It is the duty of the Superintendent to stand between the teacher and the mischievous reporter, or the irate parent, or the unreasonable School Committee. It is his duty to help her make the school the place to which children best like to go.

The talk against the three R's has given many a teacher a bad conscience with reference to her work. She feels conscience-stricken if she is caught teaching the mechanical part of reading and writing and spelling. What sort of schooling does the illiterate foreigner need to adjust him to our American civilization? Above everything else he needs the ability to read and write the English language intelligently. Children should acquire the reading habit and the library habit, so that, in adult years, they can find recreation and relief from the monotonous drudgery of industrial life by going to the library instead of the saloon and the roof-garden.

The superintendent should ever be on the watch for things that he can do to help others. His coming should be welcomed by teacher and pupil like the coming of sunshine on a cloudy day. If he sustains this relation to them, he can make them happy in their work and earn the gratitude of parents and taxpayers.



### **Department of Rural Education.**

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#### **THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE REPORT OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.**

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(Abstract.)

The report on industrial education under consideration is another evidence of the continuous change in educational beliefs and aims that has been taking place in a progressive civilization. In its statements of facts, the report shows that the public school, in its enlarged function, has assumed more and more of the educational duties of home, farm, office and work-shop; in its revelations of individual and social needs, it discloses the dependence of the public on its schools to meet those needs and the opportunity for larger service before the school; in its suggestions of ideals it inspires a trust in present tendencies and a larger belief in the public's responsibility for the education of all.

The report honors the industrial aim in education in its true relation with ethical, civic and social ideals. While the theorist, governed by tradition rather than the interests of the coming generation, may ridicule this as the "bread and butter theory of education," the parent ordinarily sends his child to school with the faith that thereby he is, among other benefits, to be the better prepared to earn his living. He knows that learning will not feed any one, but that labor

added to learning will; while he realizes that awaiting his offspring somewhere in the future is the stern duty of providing means for his physical existence. For the end of good citizenship there is a unity in the true aim of the educator and the wish of the parent for his child. The ability of a citizen to support himself and family and to contribute something to his time and generation is the very basis of good citizenship and social order. The public school is maintained to promote not only *intelligent* citizenship, but also *aesthetic* and *ethical* citizenship; not only citizenship for the purpose of government, but also commercial, industrial or productive, professional and domestic citizenship.

In a democracy, education must be *of* and *by*, as well as *for*, the people. School education is for the good of our children, of the next generation—for the betterment of the race. Tradition may offer suggestions, but the interests of the individual and society are to prompt educational thought, inspire educational sentiments and dominate educational effort. If it is to enrich and elevate the life of the race, the school must be a part of the industrial and social life of the people, from which it is to receive its own enrichment, guidance and inspiration. While it is calmly to conserve its own integrity, it is to take the hint from the dissatisfaction of parent, citizen or employer regarding the results of its work. Such hints in the report unmistakably indicate that the public is to require of its schools in the future better instruction in the principles and practice of modern industry, better training in the efficiency of labor, and a more practical education in the actual activities of men, toward which youth is constantly moving.

Modern sciences and other modern subjects have,

against protest, won their places in school and college. Urged for their vocational values, they have been honored most for their cultural values. Drawing, manual training and domestic arts, prompted by public appreciation of their practical value, knocked at the door of school, and were admitted when it was seen that they had a disciplinary value. But gain in educational theory is shown when it is recognized that culture may come from a study of deeds as well as thoughts, of the stirring history of today as well as the story of the past, and of the speech and thought of this time as well as the language and literature of a past age, and also that manual activity as well as intellectual has cultural value. Such knowledge may lead to a full recognition of the truth that the finest individual culture comes by labor and social service.

And now comes the demand that the study of industry and training for industrial and domestic pursuits have a larger place in the public school. To be sure there has been for a long time a kind of long-distance study of industry under the name of political economy, called the dismal science; but nevertheless a cultural study. No one denies that what men are thinking, doing, living, are proper subjects and arts for school. But shall such subjects and arts be so taught and practised as to give a training for a vocation? It is significant that the report frankly recognizes the vocational as well as the cultural aim in school education.

Furthermore, the report shows that the state is already committed to a policy of supporting vocational training. Schools and colleges, supported wholly or in part at public expense, provide training for the professions, teaching, commercial pursuits, and for the

highest ranks of productive industrial life, such as agriculture, building and manufacturing.

Thus far, then, public educational institutions provide vocational training for the higher and more attractive callings, and hardly affect the larger numbers of productive laborers. This condition perhaps justifies the criticism, sometimes made, that our education is top-heavy. The pressing need of industrial training, especially for those who leave school at an early age, as revealed by the report, is perhaps its most significant feature. The investigations of the commission disclosed a general want of "industrial intelligence" among workmen, which suggests economic and social danger. Our industrial system calls for a better training for efficiency in productive employments.

To meet such needs the commission do not seek revolution, but evolution in the existing public school system; not radical and destructive changes, but expansion and development. Its recommendations are significant for wise conservatism in aiming to conserve the integrity of the present system and for alert progressiveness in planning to enrich it along industrial lines, and in expanding it along vocational lines through independent industrial schools. Such a course is practicable, adapted to local conditions and needs and promotive of normal and healthful growth. The dual system of public schools may be regarded as an intermediate stage in its development and ultimately be unified under one board of control.

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## THE STANDARD RURAL SCHOOL.

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(Abstract.)

The "Standard" School under consideration is not some vague academic theory, redolent of the midnight oil but rather a brief story of the evolution of the rural schools in the State of Maine. To tell this story logically, it becomes necessary to give a concise account of the changes that have come about in the country schools of that state. As fast as the towns became settled, larger or smaller divisions of the township were made and called Districts, better known, however, as "deestrics." Each of them became an educationally isolated little republic, with ports closed in pedagogic commerce except the traffic in teachers. The material evidence of the existence of a district was the little old red school house, built upon the solid rock, or upon other land unfit for cultivation. The dignity and honor of this little empire was maintained and defended by a certain official known as the school agent, the main qualifications for said office being the fact that there was some member of the family or of his wife's family who "wanted a school to teach."

The text books were usually more or less battered heirlooms with from thirty to fifty years of thumbing clearly shown by their pages, some of which were carefully annotated with "If your name you want to see look on page 233," etc.

Uniformity was not thought of. In the early days of my teaching I had a class of six in arithmetic, five

had books, all different, and the sixth one had no book but "borrowed."

This awkward, unhandy and unsystematic system presented two striking facts. The first was the curious fact that the boys and girls really learned something. The second was the exasperating fact that the people were so thoroughly satisfied and maintained stolidly that what was good enough for their fathers was good enough for their children.

But when the present State Superintendent assumed the office he has filled with such remarkable success and great distinction, things began to happen. Public opinion was aroused and invigorated and the people of the entire state were *led* in their thinking upon school affairs. A thoroughly scientific study was made of the school conditions as they existed. The results of their study were brought before the people in addresses and in the press, by pictures, figures and statistics and comparisons that were sown broadcast. This resulted in the abolition of the district system which was not accomplished without some sharp skirmishes. Next came the law compelling the towns to furnish text-books to all pupils. After this, the people were made to see the advantages of a systematic grading of the pupils, and to demand the same, but at once there was encountered the difficulty that the teachers were not able to grade their schools. The solution of this problem was the preparation of a course of study specifically adapted to the rural schools of Maine. The next campaign was one for better buildings and the results were almost beyond belief. One of the strongest points of the district system was the feeling that "it is *our* school and *our* schoolhouse," etc.; that is, the feeling of personal ownership in the school and consequently a lively interest in its welfare. In marked contrast, was the feeling after the



old system was abolished and the new came in. Then came the feeling "the *town* owns the school house now"; "let the *town*" do this or do that. This meant indifference, if not antipathy, to schools and school matters, a state of affairs fatal to the cause of education.

This chasm was bridged by The School Improvement League of Maine, a simply wonderful organization in what it has done to bring about the most cordial and sympathetic relations between the schools and the homes.

Among the Material Results are:

1. Planted over five thousand trees.
2. Purchased a hundred thousand books.
3. Purchased over five hundred casts.
4. Purchased about seven thousand pictures.

Miscellaneous improvements impossible to enumerate, for example: Graded grounds, tinted schoolroom walls, purchased flags, clocks, organs, maps, charts, window shades and school apparatus.

Other Important Results.

1. They have created a higher standard of school equipment.
2. They have strengthened the harmony between school and home.
3. They have emphasized self-help.
4. They have increased the usefulness of the common school.
5. They have made school life more attractive to youth.
6. They have cultivated civic pride.
7. They have encouraged a taste for good literature.

The succeeding step was to encourage the better preparation of teachers by granting state certificates,

the advantages of which are so obvious that today more teachers hold state certificates in the state of Maine than in any other state in the union. In order to make this possible, summer schools for teachers were established, in some cases with an attendance of four hundred or over and an average yearly attendance of one thousand, the results from which can scarcely be estimated.

One of the latest movements was a series of "Educational Mass Meetings," of which thirty were held with an aggregate attendance of 13,800. Of them it has been said: "No educational movement in this country has attracted more attention or elicited more favorable comment. The results are most gratifying, and it is believed they will be enduring." Another factor in this awakening of a whole state, and a more potent one, is the press. Today, items of school news are as welcome and given as much prominence as are those of any kind. Scarcely a reputable journal in the state that does not join heart and hand in booming school matters, so that today every student of the schools is impressed by the changed attitude of our people as to what our schools shall be. Those who were hostile have either become supporters of the schools or are willing to learn the facts before criticizing them. Those who were indifferent have become interested and are giving to the work their cordial support. Those who were friendly have become enthusiastic. A large number of our people are reading, thinking, studying and investigating the school problem. A large majority of them are doing something each term to make them more efficient.

So thoroughly alive are the people to progressive movements in matters educational that the common inquiry is, "What next?" The "next thing" seems

to be the "standard schools," which are simply modern, but inexpensive; school buildings, grounds and equipments, placed in the *rural* communities as object lessons. The idea underlying these schools is well stated in the announcement which says:

"After a careful study of school conditions, in this and several other states, it has been decided that we have reached a point in our progress where it is necessary for us, and particularly for our school officials and teachers, to have concrete examples of what a 'standard school' is.

"Sketches, designs, plans, pictures and detailed explanations have proved helpful, but there is a demand for a physical illustration of a school of this class. Our people want to walk through the grounds, note the location of the drives, walks and paths, have a view of the spaces devoted to lawns, make examination of the forest areas and examine the fruit orchards, vegetable gardens and the sections set apart for playgrounds and sports.

"They desire, also, to make studies of the architecture of the building and its coloring. They are especially interested in the interior, the assembly room, the halls, cloakrooms, workrooms, ventilating flues, heating apparatus, location and size of the windows and the furnishings of the schoolroom."

The following from an editorial in the *Boston Herald* summarizes the main points of this movement:

"The first of the governing conditions is that no community shall be eligible to compete for the school if its population exceeds eighty persons who are between five and twenty-one years old. But the contemplated school, modest as it is, will cost more money than a small community can readily raise. Hence an ingenious and, so far as we know, a unique plan is

designed. The community should be selected for the establishment of the school which furnishes the largest 'special fund,' taking into consideration the valuation of its real and personal property for taxation. The contributions to this fund may be by residents or by others. Secondly, the town should provide the school building 'as found in the community where the improvement is to be made,' and a lot of at least three acres in extent. Then a donor, or donors, should be secured to contribute as much to this 'special fund' as has been raised by general solicitation, provided that the contribution of such donor or donors shall not exceed \$500. The modest amount of this special fund, not exceeding \$1,000, is a peculiar feature. The fund is to be kept in a bank subject to the order of two trustees, one representing the community as such, the other the donor. In other words, if we understand the scheme, it is proposed to secure a small endowment for the school, to be used in improvement or adornment of the building and grounds.

"The lot of at least three acres should be divided into plots for forest trees, fruit trees, vegetable and flower gardens, a lawn, playground, walks and drives. It, as well as the schoolhouse, is intended to be used for instruction. The kind of building required, its general plan, the materials of its construction, its furnishings and decoration are indicated. A small room to serve as a workroom for boys should be attached to one of the rear corners of the main building, and a similar room attached to the other rear corner as a workroom for girls. The particular qualifications of the teacher to have charge of such a school are set forth, and also the curriculum of studies, in which, besides the common school branches, nature, art, music, drawing, hygiene, labor and civics have place. The methods must be adapted to the child taught."

HAVE THE PRINCIPLES OF AGRICULTURE -  
A LEGITIMATE PLACE IN THE CURRI-  
CULA OF THE NEW ENGLAND  
PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

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The subject under consideration cannot be properly presented without a consideration of the relation of nature study to elementary agriculture, conditions governing the teaching of agriculture, the benefits derived from such teaching, and the methods of introducing agriculture into the public schools.

NATURE STUDY.

Nature study is the lane that leads to the field of agriculture; it is preliminary and necessary to agriculture, and bears somewhat the relation of elementary education to that of a professional character. In its function as introducer it cultivates the powers of observation, the spirit of investigation and ability to interpret; consequently it aids in discovering the cause and effect, relation of phenomena, in the acquisition of a body of useful knowledge, and in the developing of the power of logical reasoning. It also contributes interest and zest to agricultural occupations, and elevates farming out of the slough of drudgery to the plain of a profession. And, furthermore, nature study, through the interest it awakens, contributes to the joy of life. (To awaken an intelligent interest in nature study is essential and fundamental to an interest in agriculture.)

All children should find joy in welcoming the birds when they northward fly, in watching the procession of the wild flowers, in being on intimate terms with birds and bugs and beasts, in roving, romping and reveling in fields and woods, in studying star and fleecy cloud, and in worshipping nature at her myriad shrines. Such awakening and joy furnish a richness and culture of which no one can be dispossessed, form an investment of perennial dividends, and insure against vice and crime.

#### CONDITIONS OF TEACHING.

Concerning the conditions governing the teaching of elementary agriculture in the elementary schools, two classes of schools have to be considered: city and rural. Agriculture has a legitimate place in the secondary schools, as these are practically the people's colleges, and whatever contributes to the equipment of young men and women for successful careers should not be omitted from the secondary school curriculum.

The natural habitat of agriculture is not in the elementary school of the city. If the subject were introduced it would have to be taught in a theoretical manner on account of the absence of agricultural areas in close vicinity for observation and work. Also, as a science, it is too remote from the body of knowledge possessed by the city child to articulate well with his daily experience, and is too foreign to the life pursuit of most city children. Nevertheless, what has been said in regard to agriculture in city schools does not hold good in regard to nature study. Country children naturally become naturalized; city children need to be introduced to the process. City children come in closer contact with human nature, and thereby become



humanized. Naturalization is adapted to childhood; humanization to youth; the one in early and simple and preliminary; the other is later, complex, and should be subsequent. Both are needed; but one before the other.

#### SCHOOL GARDENING.

School gardening, in many respects, is more applicable to city schools than to country schools, for the reason that the plants can have care and protection during the long summer vacation. Frequently in the country the school gardens of rural schools exhibit simply a weedy, unkempt, disconsolate patch within the school grounds, a mute suggestion of wheat and tares, with all chances in favor of the tares. I am suspicious that such futile attempts are not wholly wholesome.

#### MANUAL TRAINING.

Manual training is especially adapted to the city schools, as it deals with occupation with which the children are more or less familiar, and in which they are interested. Furthermore, in the large buildings of city schools, rooms and appliance can be furnished at a minimum cost per pupil, while a similar equipment for a one-room rural school would be unreasonable; also the teachers in the rural schools would be rare who could teach the subject intelligently.

#### RURAL SCHOOLS.

Just as manual training is adapted to the city schools, so is agriculture adapted to the rural schools. Because rural school children come from the country and live in an agricultural atmosphere, these facts afford

the basis of the instruction that should be given them and also the arguments for the kind of instruction.

A great majority of country children will remain in the country; a greater majority of city children will remain in the city. Each class should be given the kind of industrial instruction to which it is adapted, and with which it is acquainted by life and experience; for the city children manual training as a major, and agriculture as a minor; for the country children, agriculture as a major and manual training as a minor.

#### RESULTS AND BENEFITS TO BE DERIVED FROM INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY AGRICULTURE.

There are three classes of benefits derived from the teaching of agriculture in the public schools. First, is the class that pertains to industrial education in general, the training of the mental powers of observation, reasoning and judgment; the training of the moral virtues of accuracy, industry and self-dependence; the cultivating of the physical activities by the use of tools and by manipulating material; the forming of a foundation for future occupation and a basis for technical training; and enabling the child to discover earlier his especial aptitudes and to enter more decisively upon his life work.

The second class of benefits and results pertain to the individual child in school. It awakens an interest in and vitalizes all his school work, and renders it more profitable; it bridges over the gulf between home life and school life, nullifies the artificiality and remoteness that is frequently developed in school, and proceeds in logical order by welding instruction to the life and experience of the child.

The third class pertains to the school community. Better school interest can be aroused in a school com-

munity by the introduction of agriculture than through any other means, and agriculture in each school community can receive a greater impetus in this manner than in any other.

METHOD OF INTRODUCTION OF ELEMENTARY  
AGRICULTURE.

Mr. Stone declared himself as opposed to the teaching of elementary agriculture by statutory requirements, for the following reasons: First, if mandatory, it would result in special instruction for a special class. Second, if legally required, it would obligate the city schools of a state as well as the rural schools. Third, the multitude of subjects and the multiplicity of classes in the ordinary rural schools prevent the introduction of another subject without violence to some already prescribed and considered essential. Fourth, the impossibility of finding teachers for rural schools, all of whom would be qualified for teaching the subject. Fifth, the diet that kills. It is the spirit that makes alive. A formal perfunctory teaching of any subject breeds disregard, dislike, disgust.

Agriculture is an outdoor study and not an indoor subject; it develops the motor activities; it is general and not specific; it forms a body for the other school subjects as members; and also furnishes the spirit which vitalizes them. It is a subject in which textbooks should not be used, but its facts and phase utilized. It is not so much for school study as for home study, but all observations should find a place in school work. Each child should be encouraged to cultivate individually a small patch of ground and raise some particular product.

He should select the best seed and should learn the best soil and the best treatment for that crop. Care-

ful observations should be made and copious notes taken of the preparation of the soil, the selection and planting of the seed and the growth and harvesting of the crop. These notes should serve as the body of essays and compositions, and these essays should serve as the program of a school entertainment or a town festival.

At the harvesting of the products, a school fair should be held, with prizes for the best bushel of potatoes or corn, the best peck of peas or beans, the best basket of berries or currants, the best exhibit of vegetables or flowers. The fair might be projected on a larger scale and prizes given for the best calf, colt, pig, or coop of chickens raised by the pupils, and for the best trained dog, colt or pair of steers.

A town fair should be organized and financed by the citizens of the town or by the school board and prizes awarded for the best agricultural product of any nature, limiting the competition possibly to the prize winners of the various schools. Herein also is a suggestion to the officers of the Fair Associations. The winners at town fairs should be allowed to compete at county fairs also, with suitable rewards for efforts. Furthermore the town or county fairs can encourage agriculture in no better way than to offer prizes to those representatives of the various schools who will judge most intelligently and accurately the best seed corn, the best cow or horse of any type. Prizes can be more worthily and effectively given in this manner than by bestowing them upon those who happen to own the products or animals by accident or raising or purchase. It is just as profitable for a boy to know the points of a Jersey cow or a Morgan horse as the phases of the moon; it is just as useful that he should know the number of the different varieties of trees in his township as to know

the population of Timbuctoo; it is just as necessary that he should know the grasses that grow in the home field as the name of some stream in Texas that dries up every year; it is just as businesslike for him to estimate intelligently the value of a timber tract or the product of an oat field as to extract cube root; it is just as enjoyable to know the language of birds and insects as the rules of grammar.

Elementary agriculture is pre-eminently cultural and practical. The conditions and processes of the science, the feeding and breeding of domestic animals, the elimination of weeds, the care of forest tracts, the marketing of products, the organizing and administering a farm, furnish a body of useful knowledge, and give a training for practical service that make life richer, fuller, sweeter, and agriculture thereby finds a legitimate place in the public schools of New England.

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## HAVE THE PRINCIPLES OF AGRICULTURE A LEGITIMATE PLACE IN THE CUR- RICULA OF THE NEW ENGLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

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In endeavoring to answer this question one should, in the first place, consider what we seek to accomplish in our schools. It is, of course, easy to say that we maintain schools for the education of our children. But what constitutes an education? Our experiences from birth to death contribute to our

education. Education is never completed. In our schools we can simply lay the foundation. The superstructure which we hope to rear upon this foundation is, as I believe, noble manhood and noble womanhood. We seek to prepare our boys and girls for intelligent citizenship. We seek to enable them to form proper estimates of the values of things, proper estimates of the value of life and of its purposes. We seek to develop the mental capacity of our children. We seek to develop them physically as well as mentally, and we, of course, seek, above all, to develop the moral natures of our children. These objects being in some measure accomplished, our growing boys and girls will develop power, not simply power to earn a livelihood and to accumulate wealth, but power to serve their fellow men, their country; power to live aright. Our schools, it seems to me all will admit, exist first of all to accomplish these purposes. They have not been founded nor operated with a view to teaching vocations.

In many quarters there exists dissatisfaction with the results of our school training. There are those who believe that our schools should teach vocations. There are those who believe that if they were made more practical they would accomplish the ideals which I have briefly outlined, more perfectly than they do at present. It will, I believe, be generally admitted that our schools are not altogether satisfactory and that they have not realized the ideals toward which we have been working. They have, of course, exercised a tremendous influence for good, but it is to be feared that, as they have been conducted and are perhaps still in many places conducted, they have not contributed to the formation of correct ideas as to the values of men and things and life. It is to be feared that in many cases among the consequences



of school life are a dislike of honest labor, a dislike to a pursuit requiring the use of working clothes, or likely to soil the hands. The rush into so-called genteel pursuits is evidence of this. The boys and girls who are longest in our schools, leave them thinking that they are too good to work. Hence the exodus from the farm and shop to the counting house and the bank, to the city and town. The special causes for the results just referred to might be of interest. I can only touch upon them. I believe that a fundamental cause is the fact that the work of the school lacks evident connection with the real things of life, with the work of the world. The schools of the country have lacked any connection with the things of the country, with the things of the farm. Secretary Martin of the State Board of Education, in calling attention to this matter recently, has said that he believed the little red school house of the country had received too much credit for its share in the development of the many noble men who had been born and reared in the country. He pointed out the fact that many of these men attended school in the little red school house but few months in the year; that more than one-half of the year they spent upon the farm and in the work of the farm, and he added that he believed that the development due to this experience upon the farm had had a greater share in the development of these noble men and women than the training received in the little red school house. I believe he is right in this view.

Secretary Martin went on to point out that school work as it is too often conducted, and chiefly, no doubt, because it has no evident connection with life, fails to interest especially the older boys in the schools, and accordingly they derive but little real benefit from their later school life. I doubt if teachers sufficiently

often realize the point of view of the scholar. I doubt if they realize how very unreal and useless some of the school work seems. I have heard an intelligent woman say that when she began the study of arithmetic, and was told that two and two make four, she wondered how that fact was established, and she said: "I distinctly remember that I concluded in my own mind that there had probably been a convention of some of the most learned men and that they had considered all such matters and had decided that two and two should be four, and had similarly reached decisions on all the other facts involved in addition, subtraction, multiplication and division."

The other day I met a very bright girl, a member of a high school, and was talking with her about the neighborhood in which she lived. It was, by the way, a town which prides itself on having good schools. I found that she apparently knew nothing whatever about the geography of her home neighborhood, although it is in a section of peculiar interest. Geography as too often taught seems foreign and unreal. In a similar way the methods in which many of the other subjects in school are taught are open to criticism, but I will not particularize further. The most sweeping condemnation of our schools that I have ever known is an assertion recently made in a public address by President Remsen of Johns Hopkins University, to the effect that his experience, which had made him acquainted with many thousands of young men entering college, had led him to the conclusion that the average young man on entering college had less capacity for observation and for correct reasoning on observed facts than the average boy on first entering the public schools. A single instance, of course, does not prove that this is correct, but an event in my personal experience is interesting in this

connection. In a company including high school graduates, college students and mature women who had attended one of the best colleges for women, and a boy of seven or eight years, I once asked who could explain why the mist and fog, which condensed on the windows right and left of the front door of a railway car in motion, instead of running straight down the windows or slanting on both windows in the same direction, slanted on each from above downwards towards the door. All sorts of incorrect views were advanced by the elders in the company and the correct answer was given finally in boyish language by the lad who had not asked a question, but had risen and for a few moments stood facing one of the windows of the room. This lad today is a recent graduate of a high school. He shows much less tendency to observe and to think and reason on what he observes than he did before going to the public schools. I will not, however, argue this point farther, for I believe that it will be generally admitted that our schools in considerable measure fail in realizing our ideals for them.

The question which we are to discuss today is whether agriculture should be introduced into the public schools. This question must naturally be considered under different heads. I suppose in the minds of most who favor the introduction of agriculture into the schools the underlying thought is that more of our sons would become farmers; that more of them would be influenced to remain on the farm. There may possibly be a difference of opinion as to whether this is desirable. Do the majority of our farmers and farmers' wives believe it to be so? I feel by no means certain that this is the case. I have known many farmers and more farmers' wives who, in answer to inquiries as to their hopes for their children, have

said they hoped they might become anything rather than farmers or farmers' wives. Were they wise? If so, clearly we should strive to influence our boys and girls from the farm and not towards it. We should all dislike to see a son of ours become "a man with a hoe." "*A man with a hoe.*" This idea that the farmer is a man with a hoe perhaps accounts for the judgment of the farmers and farmers' wives which I have referred to. But need a boy who becomes a farmer become a "man with a hoe"? The hoe is an implement of the past. The hoe is an emblem of plodding and, possibly, of comparatively thoughtless labor. Now we know that the farmer of today need not, and should not, become in this sense a "man with a hoe." We know that the modern farmer is the man with the sulky plow and the Acme harrow, the mowing machine and the reaper. We know that he must be a man of broad knowledge, a man of ability. Such a man succeeds. His chances for the acquisition of material riches are good. His chances for riches of physical manhood and for mental and moral strength are excelled by those of no other profession or industry. This is not a time to demonstrate that success in farming by modern methods is possible. Demonstration is indeed, in a sense, unnecessary, for the many examples of such success on every side are well known. We should then rejoice to turn our sons and daughters to the farm, first for their own sakes, for there are splendid chances for happy and useful lives and for the highest development of which they are capable; and if we love our country we shall rejoice to turn them to the farm for its sake. The intimate relation of agricultural prosperity to the general prosperity and well-being of a people is too well known to need argument. When our farms and farmers are prosperous, our factories

are busy, our trade is good. All our industries rise or fall with the farm and the farmer. The farm is the best nursery for a home-loving, patriotic people. From the very nature of agriculture, those who follow it become attached to the soil. They love their country as perhaps no others love it. They are the country's surest reliance in times of trouble. It was the farmers of Concord and Lexington who fired the "shot heard round the world." From the very nature of things, those engaged in other branches of industry have a less fixed residence. They are more or less nomadic. They cannot become so attached to the soil. The men and women of our cities and towns, factories and shops are patriotic, no doubt, but their patriotism is different from, possibly less to be depended upon than, that of the men and women of the farm.

"Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,  
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.  
Princes and kingdoms may flourish or may fade;  
A breath can make them as a breath has made:  
But a bold [yeomanry], their country's pride,  
When once destroyed, can never be supplied."

From the standpoint, then, of the country, from the standpoint of the development of splendid manhood and womanhood, it would seem that we ought to teach agriculture in our public schools, if thereby we can turn more of our boys toward the farm or make those who become farmers more intelligent and more successful in their business. This does not, however, necessarily follow. It may be that there exist weighty and sufficient reasons why it should not be taught in our public schools. We must answer the questions: Is there room for it? Is it called for? Would its

teaching be supported by the public? Is its teaching in the public schools practicable? We may be sure that if these questions are answered affirmatively, ways whereby it may be taught will be discovered.

It will be urged by many in considering the first question that the curricula of our public schools are already crowded; that there is not room for other subjects. This may be freely granted if other subjects must be taught as at present, but I believe that lack of interest in many subjects as now taught means half-hearted work. With a keener interest, much more may be accomplished in the same time. In learning arithmetic, the boy or girl spends years. A mature person, realizing the necessity of a knowledge of a certain amount of arithmetic, can acquire that knowledge in a time which seems almost incredibly short. Much time is now wasted in learning branches of arithmetic, algebra, etc., which the majority never use, and the same is doubtless true concerning many other subjects as taught. I believe that time can be found for agriculture if it is decided that it is desirable to teach it, and I believe that its introduction in some form might be the means of stimulating interest in some other subjects taught, so that the accomplishment even in these subjects might be increased, rather than otherwise, as a result of the introduction of a new subject. I shall refer to this matter a little later.

In considering the question whether the introduction of agriculture in the public schools is called for and whether its introduction would meet with general support, we must recognize at the outset that a conclusion irrespective of locality is, in the nature of things, impossible. Our schools are supported at public expense. In a locality where agriculture is the sole pursuit, or the pursuit followed by a great majority of those con-



tributing to the support of the schools, the introduction of the subject is likely to be called for: it will meet with public support, and it is absolutely justifiable. In some of our great agricultural states, in answer to the demand for it, it has been introduced, and the results of its introduction, so far as can now be judged, are eminently satisfactory. In most parts of New England, we fail to find purely agricultural communities. It is doubtful whether, in many places, the introduction of agriculture would be called for by a majority of those contributing to the support of the schools. It is doubtful whether its introduction would meet with such degree of public support as would make it successful. Further, it may be fairly argued that we have no right to tax for the special benefit of one vocation more than for another. In communities where other vocations are represented I believe that this view of the matter is just. I do not regard the public schools as the proper place for vocational subjects. Under the changed conditions of our modern civilization, I believe that these must be provided for at the expense of the general public, but by industrial schools and not by our mixed public schools. We must have, and shall soon have, in addition to the agricultural colleges, numerous secondary agricultural schools of different grades, and in these agriculture, both as a science and as a vocation, will be taught.

I do believe, however, that it should be the aim in the country schools to educate in sympathy with the things of the country, and I believe that, to some extent at least, similar education is desirable in the city schools as well. Whether the boy or girl ultimately lives on the farm or not, this training in sympathy with the things of the country is a wholesome training, which will influence all their lives for

good. Because this is true, it seems more important to educate in sympathy with the things of the country and of the farm than to educate, for example, in sympathy with the things of the bench, the forge, or the shop, although in so far as education can be made to contribute toward the formation of a wholesome respect for labor in whatever line of effort, such education is important.

My consideration of this subject then leads to the conclusion that in the country schools at least, and probably also in the city and town schools as well, though possibly in different degree, it is wise to teach the different subjects, admitting of such treatment in such a manner as to bring out as clearly and forcibly as possible their intimate connection with the things of the country, and in farming localities with the type of agriculture most important in such localities. If teaching such subjects in this way can be regarded as teaching the elements of agriculture, then my answer to the question under discussion is affirmative, and a most positive affirmative.

Time does not permit me to go into much detail in considering how this may be done. A few points only I will bring forward to illustrate the ideas I have in mind. In the teaching of geography, for example, the geography of a locality should come first. The study of the locality should embrace a careful consideration of the conditions as affecting the possibilities of the locality, both in agriculture and in industry. The topography of the country, its drainage systems, its local climate, and the peculiarities of its location as affecting marketing the products of the farm are among the points which should be emphasized. In the teaching of arithmetic, some of the problems should be based upon the conduct of the business of the farm. This would afford practice in all the essential arith-

metrical operations, and, in connection with the work in arithmetic, the pupils should be encouraged to study some actual problems involving a knowledge of arithmetic which present themselves in their homes. In this way, the importance of a knowledge of its different branches would become evident, and the work would be done with an interest which can scarcely be instilled when the problems relate to matters utterly foreign to the experience of the pupils. The literature of agriculture is possibly for the most part as well adapted for the exercises designed to teach the art of reading as is the literature of history, patriotism and poetry; but even in this field something can be done toward bringing the students into closer touch with the things of the country and the farm by suitable selection of reading exercises, for our language is by no means wanting in literature suited to this purpose. Geology is not commonly undertaken in the public schools, but it seems desirable, probably in connection with the study of the geography of the neighborhood, to open the students' eyes to a perception of some of the countless interesting facts of geology as affecting the neighborhood in which they live. These facts naturally interest children, and under suitable leadership they will readily learn much concerning the history of the rocks and soils and of the conditions which affect the agricultural possibilities of the section in which they live. Chemistry as now taught in the schools seems to be generally treated solely as an abstract science, and, of course, a certain amount of training in chemistry as a pure science is essential to an understanding of the chemistry of soils and plants. Every effort should be made in the teaching of chemistry in country districts at least to bring out its relation to the problems of the soil and its fertility; to the problems connected

with the production of plants and the feeding of animals. In the teaching of physics much can be done in the same direction. The action of the laws of physics as affecting the capacity of soils to hold water, the movements of the water through the soil, the temperature of the soil and its temperature changes, and the relation of these things to plant life, and the possibility of crop production should be studied. In connection with the study of botany, particular attention should be paid to the flora of the neighborhood. The influence which the character of the soil exerts upon the natural vegetation should be studied and the student should be shown how it is possible by carefully noting the species of plants coming in spontaneously in different sections, the fertility and the agricultural value of land is clearly indicated. In connection with the study of botany, the crops to which the region is adapted should be particularly studied. The fundamental facts of botany should be illustrated as far as possible. In most cases it will be found that these crops will as well serve the purpose as the more unfamiliar kinds which are often selected by the teacher of botany. To help in this work, and for other purposes which have been considered by those who have taken part in this convention, a school garden is highly desirable, and the student should be interested in the school grounds: their ornamentation and care should be a part of the school work.

I have thus briefly indicated a few of the directions in which I believe it is important that the work of our schools should be modified. I trust that I have made it evident that I do not believe that agriculture as a bread winning pursuit should be taught in detail in public schools. In these schools we should not endeavor to teach how to plow, to sow, or to reap, but we may indicate in our teaching the why

of the agricultural conditions of the neighborhood and country in which the school is located, and of many of the operations of the farm. This work can be made intensely interesting to the pupils. It will help keep them in touch with their homes, with the country, with the farm. The effects of such work will be salutary whether the pupil remains on the farm or decides on another vocation. We should strive in our schools to educate our pupils to a high respect for farming as an industry. We should seek to awaken and foster interest in the things and in the operations of the farm, and having laid this foundation, we shall have accomplished all that I believe the public schools can reasonably be expected to accomplish toward improving the agricultural conditions of New England.

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### THE SCHOOL GARDEN AS AN INSTRUMENT OF SOUND EDUCATION.

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It would at first seem unnecessary to discuss such a question. Why may we not take it for granted? Nearly everyone seems willing to admit that the school garden might be so used as to be an instrument of sound education. Why not rest the discussion there and proceed to introduce school gardens as fast as possible? That is what many people seem quite willing to do. Will they not be quite as willing to put them out when the tide of discussion turns and the school garden movement is under the ban of criticism?

For the tide will turn. The school garden will not accomplish all the wonderful things that it is being advertised to accomplish. Some of our conservative friends will soon be saying: "Back to the fundamentals! School gardening is a fad!" It came in with trumpet blasts and was to cure all of our educational ills. It has run its course and must be put aside with the other fads, nature study, drawing and manual training!

Is it not worth while to take time to discuss the pedagogical value of this latest applicant for a place in our crowded course of study and not blunder in only to blunder out again?

We do well to remember that the school gardening is only one form of the great movement of industrial education.

It seems well to me to divide my paper into two parts. In the first, I shall deal with the importance of industrial education for the public schools. In the second part, I shall use the school garden as an illustration of such industrial work as seems to be appropriate for our school. Just at this time there seems to be a great awakening to the importance of industrial education. Is this apparent enthusiasm well founded? What really is the general attitude toward industrial education for the public schools?

At a very important meeting recently held in one of our large cities, a prominent educator from one of our great universities was urging the importance of introducing at once into our schools some form of industrial education. His whole address was in favor of such immediate introduction. Just before finishing, his real attitude toward the subject was revealed when he said: "We should at least put some work of this character into the upper grammar grades and some into the last years of the High School." After the



meeting I asked several superintendents who are very much in sympathy with the movement what they thought of that address. Every one of them agreed with the sentiments there expressed. In other words, very many of our most thoughtful superintendents seem to think that a slight modification of our present course of study—the addition in the upper grades of a little manual training—will do the trick, will patch up the weak places and make our courses balanced. This seems to me absurd. It is not so much a new subject that is needed in our schools as it is a new spirit.

Now that is what is needed in our schools. Things must be shaken up. We must go at our problem from a different point of view. As Pestalozzi said: "The educational coach must be turned completely around and go in the opposite direction." We want to ask ourselves such questions as these:

Can there be sound education without industrial education?

What part does industrial education play in the education of a man?

Why should the schools take it up?

How shall the schools take it up?

It is well to look about and see how the Good Lord has been educating men. The process has been going on for many years and though the form is continually changing, the fundamental principles have always remained the same, and they will remain the same for some time to come. Every man who has become a real leader has, to use the words of Rev. Wm. C. Gannett, become so by following the simple rules of "order, diligence, patience, honesty." "The conditions for them as for us are largely the plod, the drill, the long discipline of toil."

We are all familiar with the writings of Prof.

James, who has pointed out so clearly the necessity for physical expression as a continued accompaniment of impression. We are quite willing to admit that the body must be made strong and subservient to the mind. And we have hastened to put physical training and some formal manual training into our schools. We are not so clear in our minds as to the value of work to bring about such a condition. Those people who labor most with the hands are the least educated in the ordinary sense of the term, and we associate a lack of intelligence and culture with physical labor.

"A good education," says Plato, "is that which gives to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable."

Such an education demands among other things,  
First, a strong, healthy body.

Second, a body trained to do the will of the mind, and a mind made alert through physical experience.

These two points have found expression in the statement that a young child should be first a perfect animal.

Third, the right attitude toward life and toward people.

The first two may come through play and through artificial exercises, but the third and most important one, never.

In fact, if we will but look away from our schools with their artificial conditions for a little we may see how God has been educating men through the ages. If our eyes are open we shall soon see that very young children play, but very soon they commence to work.

And the strong physique is the rule only among those people who do regularly hard physical labor. And the same may be said regarding the sound mind. The judgment of a man so trained is worth much more than that of the mere man of books.

These facts are so fully borne out in modern psychology that I do not need to dwell upon them. But the third point does not yet seem to have received such general acceptance. Must one indeed labor with his hands in order to have and to keep the right attitude toward life? I certainly believe so. Emerson says:

"I hear, therefore, with joy whatever is beginning to be said of the dignity and necessity of labor to every citizen. There is virtue yet in the hoe and the spade, for learned as well as for unlearned hands. And labor is everywhere welcome; always we are invited to work.

"But the doctrine of the farm is merely this, that every man ought to stand in primary relation with the work of the world, ought to do it himself—and for this reason, that labor is God's education; that he only is a sincere learner, he only can become a master who learns the secrets of labor, and who by real cunning extorts from Nature its sceptre."

It is well to remember that most people spend most of their time in getting a living, but in getting a living they get all things, patience, perseverance, sympathy for others and an understanding of the needs of society.

From getting a living for one's self one grows into getting a living for one's family, and through the proper care of his family he comes into proper relations with church and state.

And you will remember that Goethe in his picture of a Pedagogic Utopia makes everybody work with his hands. One set of students form a community for mining, another for the rearing of horses, and the basis of all their study is the real labor connected with that branch of education with which they are engaged.

If we can agree that education demands,

First, a strong, healthy body;

Second, a body trained to do the will of the mind and a mind made alert through physical experience; and

Third, the right attitude toward life and toward people, then we do well to test our schools along these three lines:

Does the ordinary public school,

1. Build up or tear down the physique of the child?
2. Train his body to obey his mind and develop in him sound judgment regarding the every-day affairs of life?

3. Build up a right attitude toward life and people?

We answer these questions in our minds as fast as they are stated. Our schools are training away from those things which industrial training is supposed to give.

See yonder high school boy. His coat is of the latest cut; his collar is white and lustrous. His mother scrubs to keep him so. Ask him to sweep up the dirt which he and his fellow students have made and hear him answer: "Do you take me for the janitor?"

Or see this sweet girl of sixteen who is proud to declare that her mother will not let her spoil her hands in dish water.

It is easy to prove that the home is as responsible as the school. Both the modern home and the modern school seem to be conspiring to educate our children without physical labor and away from thought of physical labor. But we are here particularly concerned with the responsibility of the schools in the matter.

In the report on industrial and technical education which is deservedly receiving so much attention, Mr. Martin has shown very clearly several things in con-

nection with education as it used to be in New England.

First, there were two systems—the liberal, in school; the vocational or apprentice, out of school.

Second, these systems supplemented each other.

Third, the apprentice system has disappeared, and to use the words of the report:

"In place of two systems of training, balancing each other and mutually co-operative, there came to be but one, absorbing all the time and thought and interest of the children and youth,—a system of education isolated and one-sided.

"Well-to-do people are everywhere lamenting that there is nothing for their children to do. The children are always receiving and never giving. Food, clothing, shelter, education, amusement,—all come to them as freely as the air and the sunshine.

"The effects of these changes repeatedly brought to the attention of the Commission are not most serious where we might naturally expect, in a lack of manual efficiency, though that is marked, but on the intellectual and moral side. There is a one-sided sense of values, a one-sided view of life, and a wrong attitude toward labor. Not having any share in productive labor, and being out of touch with it, the youth have no standards by which to measure time or possessions or pleasures in terms of cost. Many persons believe that about this point center some of the gravest of present-day social problems."

You have, I believe, already discussed the recommendations of the Commission. I would like simply to call attention to the fact that, if these recommendations are really carried out, we must find some way for giving the children physical labor which is real, productive, and which meets a recognized need of the school or the community.

Shall the school recognize this industrial work without which no human being can be educated? Shall it encourage and foster this as an integral and necessary part of all true education? Or shall it go on disregarding this and throwing all of the weight of its influence against it?

If now we are fully convinced that some form or forms of industrial education are necessary in the proper education of every child, we would seem to be ready to turn to the second part of our paper and discuss the school garden as one appropriate instrument of such education.

The child is born into a world of mystery. The business of education is to help him to understand his environment, to be able to adapt himself to it and to adapt it to his own needs. The environment acts upon the child, and the child reacts upon the environment.

Every normal child feels in the spring, the time of the making of gardens, indefinite longings; nature, animate and inanimate, wooes him; the woods call to him; the birds sing for him; even the breezes bewitch him.

He longs for the free, wild life of field and woods. The school garden is the best means yet offered for satisfying this natural longing of the child. Not only so, but it is the civilized way of answering to this call. It is the way in which the majority of men living outside of cities are responding to it. It is the way in which every man and woman in the world would do well to respond to it. It takes the wild longings and instead of repressing, turns them to advantage in making life more comfortable, more understandable and more beautiful.

To get the matter more definite in our minds let us picture to ourselves an ordinary boy with his garden.



I am thinking of a school garden in the home of the garden—in the country, or in a village with the country all about. A city garden has its value, but it is away from its natural environment and must be artificial, and like all things artificial it must give many wrong impressions.

Our boy is in the fourth grade and so about nine years of age. He is given a plot of ground, 16x7 feet, in which he may plant vegetables. He has a choice between several different kinds of vegetables. In another plot, 8x4 feet, he may plant flowers. He is also interested in class plots containing strawberries and experimental beds devoted to cereals, peanuts and other vegetables in which the class in geography may become interested. He is pretty certain to have a garden at home which is wholly or in large part of his own planning. Illus.

Now how does the pedagogy come into such work? In laying out the garden and planning it, the child is dealing with real things and real conditions, and so we have the best kind of *objective work*. Every step is here based on sense perception, and sense perception, you will remember, was one of the most important of the contributions of Pestalozzi to modern pedagogy. The work is done by children themselves, hence we have self-activity. There is some chance for choice and personal initiative, and so the creative self-activity comes in. Self-activity and creative self-activity are the magic words which Froebel gave us.

As the work goes on with planting, weeding, watering, fighting insect enemies and welcoming the birds and toads, the above pedagogical principles are continually being applied. The work is objective, the child is active, imitative and in some degree creative.

Not only so, but the child sees there various objects in their *natural relations* to each other and to him-

self. He sees the relation of the plant to the soil, the sunshine, the rain; of plant to animal life; and of plant and animal life to men. He not only sees these relations but he feels them—they become a very part of him. He thus gets real knowledge of real things in a real way. Such *knowledge* is *power*, power to do, power to understand a basis for good apperception. The modern doctrines of interest and of apperception are certainly in and through such work. The child, because of such work, will be the better able to understand plant life in all parts of the world, past, present and future. If he sells a portion of his products, as he should be allowed to do, he will get glimpses of the dependence of man upon the product of the earth and of the importance of the work of the farmer. If a part of his products are used in his own home he will understand something of the joy which comes from productive labor well done. If our boy is again given garden work in the upper grades, considerable work may be done toward developing what Mr. Martin has called "industrial intelligence" and he will be the better able to meet the modern industrial and social demands.

We have noted how the garden work comes as a response to the natural demand of the child and how many of the pedagogical principles of our great educational leaders are at once suggested when we consider such work. Let us now reverse the process and starting with the great doctrines of modern pedagogy test this kind of work by them.

Modern pedagogy can, I believe, be fairly well compassed in five statements:

1. The doctrine of sense perception.
2. The doctrine of relations.
3. The doctrine of apperception.
4. The doctrine of interest.

5. The doctrine of habit formation.

We are coming to see that these doctrines cannot in practice be separated, but must merge into each other. In other words, sense perception is not normally developed when the senses are exercised upon a potato bought at a city market and brought into the school-room, regardless of the doctrines of relations, of interest and of all the others.

But if a potato is planted and watched and tended throughout its cycle of plant life, and if the product is used for food, then the sense perception is developed upon something seen in its natural relations to earth, air, sun and water and to the needs of man; certain interests are being built up; a basis for right apperception is being established and right habits are being founded.

All these doctrines of modern pedagogy merge together then into one, viz., education-living; and living means the gradual unfolding of the soul through reaction upon environment, physical, industrial and social. The school garden gives many opportunities for such unfolding.

In fact, this conception of education is gaining ground through just such industrial work as the school garden affords. Just as in psychology the old doctrine of the mind as made up of separate faculties has given way to the conception of the mind as a unity, so in pedagogy the attempt to train the child physically at one time and mentally at another and then to subdivide the mental and train him on the sensory side at one time, on the apperceptive at another and on the interest side at another is giving place to the pedagogy which puts the whole boy at school at once. A live boy in a live school. And I know of no form of work which has thus far been introduced into our schools that is helping so much as is the school garden toward

the development of this latest and best thought in pedagogy. Certainly, then, the school garden is an instrument of sound education.

In closing, let us review briefly the points which we have considered:

1. There is a growing demand for industrial education in our public schools.

2. Many educational leaders who favor such a demand seem to think that slight modifications of our present curriculum ought to satisfy this demand.

3. Others feel that the school is now expected to do the work in education formerly done by both the school and the apprenticeship system.

4. That the school is at present simply continuing its former line of work and is, therefore, "isolated and one-sided."

5. That education can be rounded out only by the introduction of industrial work throughout the grades

6. That this industrial education must be of such a character as to (a), strengthen the body; (b), train the mind to co-operate with the body; and (c), give a right attitude toward life and society.

7. That the industrial work must, therefore, consist of real physical labor which is productive, which is needed and for which the child shall receive directly or indirectly some adequate compensation.

8. We have considered the school garden as a form of industrial education which may be so used as to meet the above-mentioned requirements.

9. We have seen how this form is a response to the nature of the child.

10. How it lends itself to the exemplification of the most important teachings of modern pedagogy.

11. And how finally it is forcing us to see that all attempts to educate the child in accordance with sepa-

rate or isolated principles are artificial and so doomed to failure.

12. That education is an organic whole, a growth, a life, an unfolding, a continuous progression of readjustments of the soul to the ever-changing physical and social environment.

It ought to be noted that if school gardening is to accomplish what has been suggested, several things must be true, viz.:

It must be work and not play. It must be to the child, in some degree, what the farm is to the farmer. It must be planned and conducted with the idea that it is to yield a fair return for the labor which is put into it and that the child who does the work is to reap the reward of his labors.

We ought to remind ourselves in closing that such school garden work as I have in mind will make the child industrious, thoughtful and sympathetic. It will cultivate simple tastes and will help him toward the appreciation of such sentiments as we find expressed by Hawthorne:

"In chaste and warm affections, humble wishes, and honest toil for some useful end, there is health for the mind, and quiet for the heart, the prospect of a happy life, and the fairest hope of heaven."

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## THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SCHOOL GARDEN WORK.

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About a decade and a half ago, the school garden was introduced into American schools as a new feature, or, rather, it marked the beginning of the

re-organization of the American educational system. Educators began to realize that our children had too much to do with books and too little to do with things; that they were educated away from, instead of along, industrial lines; that the development of the mental without developing the physical system caused many physical wrecks. To counteract this, calisthenics, manual training, and, perhaps, best of all, the school garden were introduced or connected with the school. Gardening, like the other branches named, should always be considered an integral part of the school, —another room added to it, an outdoor laboratory for demonstrating and impressing the problems of the classroom and, best of all, for the co-operative development of the physical and mental systems by work in the pure, open air, and in contact with the source of all wealth, the soil.

The school garden movement is rapidly gaining ground. While a few years ago there were only half a dozen cities that had school gardens, now more than one hundred and fifty towns and cities in the United States have gardens in at least some of their schools. I have never heard of a case where the garden was systematically, prudently and intelligently conducted, that failed to be satisfactory and to make good its claim to be of educational value.

From several hundred letters from superintendents from all sections of the country comes word that teachers, as a rule, are interested in the school garden movement, but that they do not know where to turn for help in the work, nor do they themselves know how to make a beginning. All communities cannot afford to employ a specialist as a school garden director, even if there were a supply of them. The principal problem, then, that confronts us is the preparation of existing teachers for school garden work.



To meet this need special gardening courses have been established in summer and in special schools, while, for the training of new teachers, a course in school gardening has been added in several of our Normal schools. Teachers, even those bred in the country, are very rare who understand the conditions of the soil and the proper methods of planting the seed. What opportunity, then, has the city-bred girl to practically understand the processes by which sixty-five per cent. of the wealth of the country is obtained?

These special courses, summer and normal schools, are excellent, but I believe the principal solution of the problem as it exists throughout the country,—the preparation of those already engaged in teaching and who cannot afford to go to a special or summer school,—is through the department of extension work in our agricultural colleges. Some states are already doing something along this line. The agricultural colleges in many places do, and everywhere should, stand close to the public schools. They receive their financial support from similar sources. They are supported by the people. In what better way can they help all the people than by helping the teachers of our public schools, and through them, the future citizens of our commonwealths?

When we have in every agricultural college a department of extension work, that, among other things, will be a bureau of information, if you please, where any and every teacher may write for information and be sure of a prompt reply, a correct and unbiased answer; a bureau that holds teachers' institutes within the reach of every teacher, and that issues instructive and helpful pamphlets, then the problem of the preparation of teachers for school garden work will be nearly solved.

But this may not come at once, and in the meantime we must do what we can. For several years I have been preparing teachers at the School of Horticulture for school garden work. The demand for these trained teachers is greater than the supply. Each member of the teacher's class is provided with a note book similar to the ones the children keep. I explain every detail of the lesson with as much care as I would to seventh grade pupils. I also give a list of valuable bulletins, pamphlets, reports or books on the subject of the lesson, and on children's gardens in general. They are, of course, able to progress faster than children and to go deeper. After the lecture, the class goes to the garden, where each individual has a garden plot, which she has to care for without assistance. Here the physical side of the work is taught,—the proper method of handling the tools. By planting and caring for the crops the lessons are more firmly impressed.

In the garden, problems present themselves, and here they have answered just the questions that the children will ask when they begin work. Very few indeed are able to carry out the mathematical part of the work without aid. The development of the physical system is also beneficial. Keeping the records of each crop impresses the importance of careful book-keeping and makes each familiar with the crop as well as with the average yield.

A seedsman recently told me that he found lettuce seed he had sold to a teacher planted four inches deep. She complained because it did not come up. This shows the necessity of training teachers. When the institutes and summer schools, especially those at the agricultural colleges, where there is plenty of land to demonstrate and where all the different fruits and vege-

tables are growing and can be seen and studied, teach school gardening in a practical and systematic manner, then the benefits of the school garden will never be doubted, and we will all wonder why we waited so long before introducing it into our educational system. It will tend to check the flow of the human stream toward the already too crowded city and to drive the white man's plague (consumption) from our land.

This means much when we realize that one-fifth of the deaths are caused by pulmonary troubles due to indoor life in cities. Is it not more than worth while, then, to advocate the school garden and to train teachers for school garden work?

## Department of Public School Finance.

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### SOME POINTS OF A SALARY CAMPAIGN.

BY SUPERINTENDENT PAYSON SMITH,  
AUBURN, MAINE.

This salary campaign, I apprehend, is not one of sensation and force, but a campaign of publicity. I must confess to an abiding faith in the ultimate fairness of the American people. I do not believe that in this matter of getting fair and just treatment for this most important class of public servants there is to be any necessity for the use of methods which savor of sensationalism.

The first work is upon teachers themselves, and this work is one of investigation, the securing of the facts; and the second step is likewise upon teachers, and it ranks with the first in importance, and this step is to spread broadcast the facts they secure. The third step is to be the work of the public, and if the first and second things be done judiciously, wisely, and thoroughly, I think we need have no doubt as to the third. The public will respond. Arguments which have not a basis in fact do not carry far, and sentiment that has not a foundation in sense may be expected soon to evaporate. We must see to it, therefore, that the arguments for better pay for teachers are presented with all the force which goes with proven facts and unquestioned figures.

The obvious thing about any collection of facts on the salary question is, of course, the salary itself, and may I say that in this it is well not to assume a too definite knowledge on the part of citizens. You might

expect the average citizen of your town or city to name offhand the salaries paid to its teachers. If you believe this to be the case, make a test by asking the question of the next citizen you meet. It was my fortune recently to be connected with an investigation of salary conditions in Maine. In the course of its progress I talked on the subject with many very well informed citizens of different sections of the state. Of the entire number, not one could state with any degree of exactness the salaries paid in his own community. The nearest they could come to giving information was: "I think they are rather low," or "Somewhat higher, I believe, than in other towns." And knowledge of conditions in the state at large was still more vague and indefinite. Therefore, our investigation must reveal exact information on this point; we must not assume that it is already in mind. In black and white should the maximum, the minimum, and all between be stated, and the number of teachers who receive each. Figures of this sort are even more striking than is the inevitable average.

For example, on the rendering of the Maine salaries report, the newspapers of Maine featured as special items like this: "Two thousand Maine teachers work for \$200 a year." Such items we trust are to prove our most effective arguments.

It is highly important, too, that the salaries should be stated in annual as well as in weekly or monthly terms. It has been too long assumed that teachers can live without food or clothing for three months of the year, and it has likewise been assumed too often that summer terms spent in hotel dining-rooms, or Christmas vacations spent in department stores, are productive of increased worth in the schoolroom. In this connection may I recall an incident which presents both its ludicrous and its pathetic sides? This ques-

tion was asked in a blank sent to teachers: "Do you find it necessary to supplement your salary through vacation employment?" One teacher who in her returns had stated that she taught thirty weeks at \$8 per week said in answer to this question: "My school committee would not allow it." Without analyzing the answer, I suppose it is fair to conclude that this teacher is not required to spend her remaining twenty-two weeks and the balance of her \$240 in European travel and study.

And second, this investigation of ours must concern itself with the requirements which are made of teachers. We may properly leave out of discussion all those highly ideal requirements which we sometimes find committees asking. It is true, I admit, that we often might conclude that nothing short of the infinite graces and virtues of an angel would suffice to meet the demands upon the teacher, but, after all, these are virtues and graces which we so seldom offer that perhaps it would not be fair to speculate on their deserved remuneration. However, when we go before the forum of public opinion, it is only just that there be presented some idea of the reasonable returns teachers are and should be expected to make. The teacher is and should be expected to bring to her employment a good equipment of scholarship, to keep up with the educational times through the reading of books and magazines, through lectures, institutes, and conventions, to be decently dressed, and to live in good surroundings. Besides these absolutely essential requirements, no teacher can preserve her reasonable working value without opportunities for travel, rest, and recreation. These are not, mind you, essentially favors for teachers; they are the means which very directly are to keep our entire public school plant up to the point of highest efficiency.



Again must our findings include statements of what sort of service is actually rendered by the teachers, not ideal service, but real, not what ought to be done, but what actually is done. Let us get the facts without dodging. Is it true that a third, a half, three-quarters of our teachers are receiving as much as they earn,—are receiving all they earn? If this is so, then what shall we say of the quality of the work of the schools, what of the training the nation gives its children? If it is true that the wage rate of teachers is an accurate measure of the quality of the work of the public school, then I submit we had better have done with our glorification of the American public school. No one of even very limited observation can deny that there are many teachers who can hardly lay claim to deserving pay higher than they now receive, but this fact does not by any means justify the continuance of the wage rate; rather is it the greater reason for such improvement in the salary schedule as will enable the public to exclude from the schools everywhere and forever the incompetent, the inefficient, and the unworthy. This consideration is one our teachers may well take in mind. In the agitation for higher wages, let the teacher's main argument be not those of figures or of statistics, but of her own more devoted, more efficient service.

A fourth item which deserves a prominent position in this matter is that of taxation. It is a curious fact that many teachers even do not comprehend some of the chief conditions which lead to a high or to a depressed state of wages.

It is not unusual to hear teachers speak of this town that is niggardly or of that one which is liberal. They are apparently oblivious to the fact that municipalities, like individuals, may be rich or poor, and must plan

their expenditures within their resources. A certain town in Maine supports schools only twenty-five weeks, and pays an average salary of only \$7, and yet to do even so much this town taxes itself for schools at a rate three times that of several of the cities of the state. In Waldo county the taxable property amounts to \$800 per pupil, while in Cumberland county it is \$2,700 per pupil. Obviously the same rate will yield over three times the fund in Cumberland county that it will yield in Waldo county. And thus we find it throughout the land. Towns that stand side by side, states that are neighbors, represent different conditions. In some cases higher tax rates would make property holding impossible. This condition obviously is one that the state and, if need be, the nation must consider. This question of taxation is so interesting and so highly important that there is temptation to dwell longer upon it. I cannot leave it, however, without observing that the principle of general taxation must be infinitely extended if the child of the state and of the nation is to be trained to become the useful citizen of the republic wherever he is to live. The citizen of your wealthiest city has a vital interest in the quality of the training of that boy who is now attending school in a remote and isolated region, for one day he is to come to that city and will live in it, and he will give to it the fruit of his productive years; whether the fruit of those years be good or bad depends on the quality of the training he is having now. Does not every consideration of justice, of fairness, of self-preservation, even, call for such distribution of the general wealth as will give to every child, whether of city or of hamlet, the best quality of education that is available to children anywhere?

From the question of taxation it is a natural step to the question of what communities may afford. In a

certain town a school measure came up for consideration. It called for \$1,500 increase of the school appropriation. The matter was argued before school board and town council. The newspapers had editorials and printed letters from "Citizen" and "Old Teacher." On corners groups of men discussed it, and at the Woman's Club it became a "topic." While the question was under fire a circus visited the town, and without any discussion, without any editorials or letters, without street-corner forums, and without tea consumption at the club, that circus quietly and without ostentation took away on a conservative estimate \$6,000. The question of whether the town could afford \$6,000 was never once raised. Now be assured I have no point against the circus. More than likely the \$6,000 made a good, fair return in youthful exuberance and adult rejuvenation; but are we not often shown that the question "what we can afford" quite often means "what we want?" And the idea holds in a large way. Many a city has had enough civic pride of a peculiar sort to build hundred-thousand-dollar school buildings, but has satisfied that pride therewith, not seeing the incongruity of placing in those buildings teachers of the \$300 sort.

Our national liquor bill exceeds many times our bill for public education, and the cost of the schools literally goes up in smoke every twelvemonth. And not to prolong these comparisons, may our salary campaign not aim to set before the people that, when it comes to affording things, they are already expending many times the amount we reasonably ask for the schools for those things which are infinitely less worth while. Not that any one really expects any one else to give up his cigar, but that we may see how foolish, after all, this talk is that we can't afford to have good schools. The public school is the hostage which the

nation offers against its future existence; it is the source of its prosperity, it is the guarantee of its democracy, it constitutes the measure of its influence in the world, and as such the nation cannot only afford to support the public school, but rather, let us say, the nation cannot afford for a single day not to support it.

Now it is not altogether fair to conclude that all the money that is now being spent for schools is being wisely spent, that there are not certain economies possible, and it is, in my judgment, of first importance that in this investigation some place be found for an analysis of present school expenditures. Many towns are supporting more schools than they should attempt to support. Low salaries and inferior results must follow so long as this policy prevails. Deferred admission to school would make available for the school's funds now spent at less than the best advantage. Some cities that can't afford both good teaching and a long list of special supervisors might profitably choose the former and go without the latter. Much money is wasted through the expenditure of funds through political rather than business principles. One city, and not a large one at that, spent \$1,000 for school supplies last year in excess of the necessary amount because of a local policy which excludes competition. This city is one which annually loses good teachers to other towns. So many are the economies that might legitimately be practiced, indeed, that one questions whether, after all, the public would be justified in appropriating more money until that now appropriated is better accounted for. Therefore, let us not overlook in our investigation the importance of inspecting the conditions in this respect.

In these facts which we are placing before the public, we must not overlook the comparison of the wages which teachers receive and those that are paid to our

fellow-workers in other fields. In no spirit of envy or malice should this comparison be made. The figures themselves must tell the story. You and I already know how pitiful is the comparison between teachers' wages and those paid in other lines of employment; we know that our country, more generous than Europe towards all other kinds of labor, pays its teachers lower salaries than any progressive country of the Old World. We know, too, that while living expenses have advanced by leaps and bounds in the past decade or two, and the wages of so-called productive labor have, in some measure, at least, responded to these advances, those of the teaching profession have hardly perceptibly increased. All these facts by figures and comparisons should be set forth.

Now, then, you will say that all these things which I have stated are already available through reports of the N. E. A., and through some state reports. And so I am brought to the important part of this consideration, the extension of knowledge of these points. If these reports are to be stored away on shelves to collect dust and to grow stale, or if they are to be reserved merely for the reading of teachers, they may as well not have been written. The important thing is to get the facts they contain before the people. The committee of the N. E. A. has performed a work of magnitude in the report it has rendered; a source has been provided to which teachers and citizens throughout the country may go for facts for distribution, but forget not this distribution must be made, and its making must be with the teachers. This national report should be followed with state reports, wherever these have not already been made. But even this will not be enough. Every local community must do its own work. When reports are ready, local committees should

see to it that the local press, members of school boards, and town and city councils are provided with articles based on the reports. State reports and local committees may perhaps best be arranged at the direction of state teachers' associations. Every county institute and local teachers' meeting should provide place, as this convention has done, for the discussion of this question. Your city or town teachers' association may properly have a committee on economic advancement as a committee on course of study. And further, wherever there is an association of citizens, a grange, a civic club, a parents' association, let this topic be presented. This second great work of spreading the facts is then as highly important as the first great work of getting them, and it is a work in which we may all participate.

But let me add, this campaign, while we may all take part in it, is by no means a personal one. Whether you and I profit does not so much matter. It must not even be altogether professional, for whether the teachers shall profit is not the vital question; the point is whether the American public school shall perform worthily its stupendous task, and the pith of the whole matter is whether the children who are the wards of the nation shall be given the kind of training which shall make them able to shoulder the burdens and to discharge the responsibilities which the republic is to place upon them.

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## WAGES AND MERIT.

CLARENCE F. CARROLL,  
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,  
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In many cities half the tax levy is expended for public school education. Frequently the limit of bonded indebtedness has been nearly reached. An advance of 10 per cent. means \$150,000 if the salary budget is half a million dollars, and so on. In many cases such an increase is absolutely impossible without an advance in the tax rate. An advance in the tax rate may discourage manufacturers and depress the value of real estate.

On the other hand, there is in many parts of the country a dearth of grade teachers. Young women can hope to receive higher remuneration as stenographers, as bank clerks, or as expert workers in many industrial lines. Men and women of the best promise who are college graduates cannot often be tempted to teach for the salaries offered in high schools or as principals. These positions, with a maximum of \$800 to \$1,200 for women, or from \$1,200 to \$1,500 for men, would not be considered prizes in other lines. The teaching profession is uncertain in tenure, is trying to health, often leads to stagnation of intellect and often limits social life. In many cities and states the normal schools are patronized largely by young women of little culture and ordinary aims.

Just how, then, can we hope to furnish funds to arrest the deterioration of the quality of the teaching force that has steadily been going on for several years?

If we state the dilemma in plain terms we shall affirm that on one hand to largely increase the tax rate

would endanger the growth and prosperity of the community. If we do not increase wages promptly, our teaching force will rapidly become unfit to teach the children of intelligent cultured Americans, and the private school will flourish as it never has before.

There is, I believe, but one answer to this question, and that is that teachers like workers in any other profession should be paid on a merit basis. In all recent agitations concerning increases in salary, the question of merit has seldom, if ever, been mentioned. A salary schedule for teachers is as unjust in our profession as it would be in the law or medicine, and reduces our calling to the basis of a labor union. Teaching is a high art, and every school official knows that there is the widest variety of usefulness and efficiency among teachers, whether it be in trade or high school or college.

If the truth were told, the profession is congested with teachers who are indifferent, unproductive, and too often incompetent, and the larger the city the worse the situation is likely to become. And once elected it is practically impossible to remove a teacher or school principal. Wherever, as has happened in a few instances, clearly incompetent teachers have been removed, we have seen a veritable tragedy. This is no exaggeration, and I have touched very lightly upon the weakest point and most inexcusable failure in our system. This has been proved to be true because in rejuvenated school systems many poor teachers have been made alive by the application of simple business principles and good supervision.

Under such conditions as I have sketched a great injustice is done both to the weak and to the strong teacher. The true and real teacher is not given credit for her skill. She is kept at dead level of salary and reputation, and her whole life is a sacrifice of place

and name. But this can never be different, so long as we fear to distinguish between their high service and the weak and heartless product of the rank and file of many members of the teaching force. The unsuccessful teacher, who is equally paid and equally honored, suffers an injustice in never knowing that she is a poor workman, an unprofitable servant. Good teachers, and there are great teachers, many of them should be honored with medals and crowned by a grateful community as much as heroes in other callings. A confiding public is deceived, and the business man on the board of education is often completely unaware of the lack of business principles in the system for which he is responsible.

By all means let us advance the salaries of the best salesmen, managers, clerks, craftsmen and toilers and professional men and women, including teachers, but let us break the dead level of salaries that holds our profession in chains.

How can this be done? In Chicago, teachers are advanced upon the completion of courses prescribed, for which instruction is provided without cost by the board of education. Baltimore is experimenting with a similar plan. New York City formerly advanced salaries upon recommendation of inspectors. In a few favored smaller communities like Brookline, Mass., East Orange, N. J., and Hartford, Conn., teachers have been paid upon the merit system, wholly. In most other cities the schedules are in force, and good, bad and indifferent are advanced together.

It is claimed that if teachers are students and work for a higher standard of intelligence and scholarship, they are stimulated to a better professional effort and standard and that the student habit, once formed, remains a permanent force in their lives. The system of inspection, as such, tends to make teachers exceed-

ingly nervous whenever they are visited. In either case, the real skill and efficiency of the teacher cannot be given full weight, and the unassuming artist found in every school is often passed by.

There are three conditions that must be met before we are prepared to advance teachers upon merit, with a chance of minimum error.

First, some person in authority and near the teacher must assume responsibility, and know intimately her strength and her weakness. The school principal ought to be the man best fitted to make this diagnosis. This implies that the school principal is a real teacher and able to estimate the work of his assistants upon a pedagogical basis.

Second, the principal, the supervisors and the superintendent should reach an understanding as to all such cases of superior merit.

Third, the result of such a consensus of opinion should be reported to the board of education with evidence that cannot be questioned.

By all means the teacher who is a candidate for advancement should be a student, and the inspectors should agree that she is a growing teacher. Each of these conditions is but one factor, and no one of the three elements that I have referred to should be considered as final in determining advancement.

This theory of increasing salaries should be applied to the supervisor, the school principal, the special teacher, the High School teacher, the grade teacher and kindergartner alike.

Strong teachers are as easily identified as good lawyers or good salesmen. Pupils and parents know them, and intelligent school officials know their names by heart. If officials are not thus informed they are utterly useless professionally. It is only a false sympathy that would include a plum in every package

that has thus held to a dead level a great multitude who should stand forth, each in his own light and merit, in this calling, than which no other calls for more individuality.

Such a general principle would mark the dawn of a new era. The successful teacher would occupy her right place and assume a new influence. The unsuccessful teacher would know her shortcoming and have some good reason to attempt a higher form of service. The school principal would find some effort worthy of his name and rank, which now are often in deserved contempt. Incidentally, no salary should be advanced except upon merit.

The real secret of the present discreditable situation is found in the political or personal issues that enter into nearly every school system. The member of the School Board is supposed to be a friend to every teacher. No teacher's salary is ever lowered by a board of education, nor is a teacher often declared incompetent, though it is an open secret that there are hundreds simply waiting for the pension.

The school principal often coddles his family of teachers and jealously protects the weakest from the breath of criticism, and so the evil grows.

What every teacher most needs is a frank statement as to her strength and weakness, sympathetic assistance in all her work and an ideal help in plain sight that will inspire a better effort and save her from deterioration and reproach. We are all interested in this question and have a common responsibility. Our profession is entitled to a remuneration that will attract and hold the very best talent. But no compromise is possible. If we persist in attempting to lift the mass on a level, we shall stifle merit and dignify indifference and incompetency; the schools will fall far short of performing their divine mission; and the irrep-

arable loss will fall equally upon the teacher and the community. Yes, the teacher is worthy of recognition, and only a wrong theory and a wrong system long entrenched are responsible for the present anomaly. If I am right, we should agree upon some better ideal, boldly state the truth as we see it, and urge some modification that would give us freedom and provide a basis for suitable remuneration.

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**Department of School and College Athletics.**

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**A STUDY OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF  
PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC  
SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES.**

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The present study was made during 1904-1905. The first Questionnaires were sent out during November, 1903. This study is one of a group of studies which are to include the characteristics and extent of physical training and athletics in the colleges, normal schools, preparatory schools and public schools of the United States.

Mr. G. B. Affleck, now director of the physical department of the Iowa State Normal School, presented a thesis for graduation at the Springfield Training School in 1901. His subject, "The Extent and Characteristics of Physical Training in the Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the United States," was the first in the series. He has just completed a study on the status of physical training in the public normal schools of the United States. We are now in the Springfield Training School conducting a study of the regulation and control of competitive sport in the public high schools, preparatory schools, state normal schools and colleges. These studies when completed will present a comparatively full survey of the characteristics and extent of physical training and athletics in the educational institutions of the United States.

For this paper, which I am to present this afternoon, I am greatly indebted to the superintendents of schools for their hearty response and for the careful manner in which the blanks were filled out. The value of this article is dependent upon the number and completeness of the replies, and I feel that this study presents a very fair view of the physical training in the public schools of the United States—from the fact that the replies were from a good number of cities, and from widely distributed cities, both geographically and in population, as I shall show later.

Dr. Thomas M. Balliet, formerly superintendent of the schools in Springfield, Mass., now dean of the School of Pedagogy, of the New York University, gave many valuable suggestions regarding the formation of the Questionnaire, so that as many facts concerning the subject might be obtained as possible.

Mr. P. B. Samson, now director of physical training in the Kansas State Normal School; Mr. E. S. Elliot, assistant physical director in the Boston Y. M. C. A., and Mr. P. K. Holmes, physical director of the Peterboro, Ont., Y. M. C. A., co-operated in the study, and materially assisted in the collection and tabulation of the data.

The basis of the study were the cities listed in the latest United States Commissioners' Report of Education. There were 1,120 cities, and a Questionnaire was sent to each superintendent of schools in the above.

From the 1,120 to which Questionnaires were sent, 555 cities returned the Questionnaires with the answers filled in, with more or less completeness. This study is based upon these replies.

Of the 555 cities which returned the Questionnaires, 128 cities employ special physical training teachers—23 per cent of the whole number.

Some few others have had expert supervision for about as long—but not with the same teachers. The tenure of office in this profession seemed to be so varied that no very valuable statistics could be derived from the question in regard to length of stay in present position.

In the 128 cities there are 291 teachers employed: 189, or 65 per cent., women, and 102, or 35 per cent., men.

New York city leads the country in the number of teachers employed and in the salaries paid. Fifty-five teachers are employed, fifteen of them men and forty women. The salaries for men in the elementary schools range from \$1,200 to \$1,600 per year; for women from \$900 to \$1,200. In the high and training school the salaries for men range from \$1,300 to \$2,400; for women, from \$1,100 to \$1,900 per year. In the country as a whole the salaries for men range from \$500 to \$4,000; women, \$360 to \$2,500 per year.

The marked increase in proportion of male teachers in the Middle West is probably due to the influence of the German Turners. The present rapid growth of physical training in the high schools and the desire for the supervision of athletics will probably increase the percentage of men employed. The necessity for the regulation and control of sport with the boys makes imperative male teachers. The evils arising from the presence of athletics in the high schools without adequate supervision are widespread and openly acknowledged. I will show later from the Questionnaires that the tendency is toward regulating the sport and that will in the end mean regularly employed male teachers. These Questionnaires have brought out some striking facts. You will see that the demand for this type of teachers has come more or less indirectly from the boys themselves, in distinc-

tion from the corrective gymnastics which have been put into the grade schools, because the educators have seen the necessity for them. It is a curious fact, which you as teachers will recognize, that the same tendency is developing among the high school girls. A certain type of exercise appeals to them, and slowly they are trying to gain it. In a few years it will be necessary to provide them with gymnasias and teachers fitted to give to them the type of exercise they will demand. In the high school the same physical training cannot be given to both boys and girls, as it can in the grade schools. Adequate and satisfactory teaching will be absolutely necessary for both sexes in the near future. That this fact is recognized by educators we can see by the number and widespread distribution of high school gymnasias. There are in 555 cities upon which we are basing our investigations, 125, or 23 per cent., which have one or more high school gymnasias. Of these cities, sixty-one do not employ any special teacher of physical training, sixty-four cities have gymnasias which also employ regular teachers of physical training. There are 149 high school gymnasias. Eighty-two of these high school gymnasias are in sixty-four of the 128 cities with physical training teachers. Sixty-seven of these high school gymnasias are in sixty-one of the 427 cities without physical training teachers. In this count of gymnasias all cases were included where they had a room for the purpose of gymnastics. Sometimes they felt it to be inadequate, and sometimes it was rented. There were in process of construction nine high school gymnasias and one grammar school gymnasium.

In answer to the question about a number of schools provided with playgrounds, practically all answered that their schools were provided with them, Somer-

ville, Mass., alone stating that they had no playgrounds.

In the 128 cities with physical directors, 118 superintendents answered regarding the size of their grounds: Fifty-four, or 45 per cent., regarded them of sufficient size, thirty-nine said some were large enough, others too small; twenty-seven said all of their grounds were too small. In the 427 cities without special teachers of physical training 340 superintendents answered the question: 166, or 49 per cent., regarded their playgrounds as large enough; eighty-six said some were large enough; eighty-eight stated that all their grounds were too small. There was much difference of opinion among the superintendents in regard to the size necessary for a playground. In a voluntary Questionnaire it was not practical to ask for the absolute size of the playgrounds. One superintendent stated that his grounds were not large enough to stand his pupils from elbow to elbow. Many cities have playgrounds under the park commissioners or other bodies.

Sixty cities have 144 playgrounds aside from the school buildings. In 128 cities with physical training teachers there are 28 cities with eighty-seven of such playgrounds; in the 427 without physical training, there are thirty-two cities with fifty-seven of such playgrounds.

In 427 cities *without* special physical training teachers, 331 answer, giving an average of twenty-seven minutes per day for their recess time; sixty-eight did not answer this question; twenty-eight had no recess.

One had calisthenics in place of recess.

The average time additional to recess given to physical training in cities *without* special teachers was fifty-one minutes per week, or ten minutes per day, for the 195 cities giving attention to the subject.

Two hundred and thirty-two cities give no additional time.

Of the 128 cities with special physical training teachers, eighty-nine consider it practical to have regulated play during recess; eighteen answered no, and twenty-one did not answer. Twenty-six do regulate the play; seventy-seven consider it practical, but not advisable—the principle reason given being the lack of training of the teachers in this direction.

In the high schools of these same cities forty-one recommended supervision; fifty say no, and thirty-seven did not answer. In the 427 cities *without* physical training teachers, seventy-two have regulated play in the grade schools. In the high schools of this class little interest was shown in the matter of the regulation of recess play, only fifty out of 427 answering the question: twenty-two believed it undesirable, and twenty-eight favored it.

The inquiry regarding the system of physical training used brought a large variety of answers. I have placed the replies in two groups: first, those with special teachers; second, those without special teachers.

In the ninety-three cities with special teachers who answered, thirty-two used Swedish work, seven the German system; the other fifty-four used various combination systems.

One hundred and ninety of the 427 cities without physical training teachers answered: forty-two of these used the Swedish; the others were combinations of the different systems.

The answers enumerate twenty-four systems of various types.

In the cities *without* special teachers the systems are traceable largely to the available books. Posse, Enebuske, Bancroft and Betz are the names given



most often to their systems. Sixty-seven state that they have no system. The general impression left from a careful perusal of the answers is that there is less discussion of systems and more study to meet the actual conditions in a given city than formerly. The source of training of 111 out of the 291 teachers was given: fifty-eight of these were trained in regular normal schools of physical training; the rest fitted privately.

Fifty-eight of 111 have taken technical training for the work—the others, including a goodly number among the stronger teachers, have grown up with the profession, adding to their knowledge by the most accessible means—that is, of course, a temporary condition due to the demand for teachers, which hurries a man into active work before he has fully equipped himself for it. All indications point to a technically trained group of specialists, the majority of whom shall have been trained in the normal schools—for example, ten years ago fifteen, or 8 per cent., of the Y. M. C. A. directors had received technical preparation; today 127, or 39 per cent., have had such technical preparation. This large increase in trained men is due to the fact that they have two normal schools from which they secure the majority of the graduates, one at Chicago and one at Springfield, Mass.

In answer to question 16, "Would you think it wise to increase the time period devoted to physical training?" the majority of the 128 cities where there are special teachers of physical training would *not* increase the time. The figures are as follows: Forty-one would increase the time; sixty-four would not increase the time; twenty-three did not answer.

In the 427 cities *without* special teachers the majority would increase the time; 232 cities give no

time; 195 cities give an average of ten minutes per day.

In answer to question 17, "What phases of physical training would you emphasize?" the superintendents with and without special teachers both emphasized the same things, namely, sports, plays, games, body building, all-around development, organic vigor and corrective exercise.

The boys are much interested in competitive sports. They select most largely those calling for the greatest vigor.

In no respect does the regular gymnasium work furnish a substitute for football and the various competitive games in the high schools; in fact, where they have special teachers of physical training the percentage of cities having competitive teams is larger than in the cities without teachers. In fifty-two, or 40 per cent., of the 128 cities with special physical training teachers the students employ coaches themselves, in addition to the regular gymnasium teachers. In the 128 cities with special teachers, thirty-three, or 27 per cent., have assistance from the school authorities (18) or by teachers acting voluntarily (15). In all eighty-seven cities, or 68 per cent., have coaching, the most of it separated from the work of the physical director. In 120, or 28 per cent., of the 427 cities *without* special teachers, the students employ coaches. These 427 cities also have assistance from thirty-five coaches, or 8 per cent. of the school authorities (25), and from teachers acting voluntarily (10). One hundred and fifty-five, or 36 per cent., out of 427 have coaching for their teams. Eighty-seven cities, or 68 per cent., of the 128 cities have coaches, most of them under the direction of students rather than the physical director. One hundred and fifty-five cities, or 36 per cent., out

of the 427 cities *without* special teachers have coaches.

There is more football and other competitive sport in the high schools of cities with physical training teachers than in those without special teachers. These sports are managed largely by the students without the aid from the physical directors. In fact, it would appear in many cases that these competitive sports have grown up without the co-operation of the school authorities or director, you might say almost in spite of them.

This lack of co-operation on the part of the school and the director may be due to lack of interest, lack of time, or inability on the part of the director to coach the various sports.

Careful study of the Questionnaires would seem to indicate that a portion of teachers were fitted chiefly for instruction in corrective gymnastics. The emphasis placed by the superintendents on plays and games and the demand for men to coach in the various sports indicate a desire to place the supervision of the boys' sport in the hands of a regular teacher. The large majority of the school superintendents approve of competitive athletics in high school. One hundred and fifteen of the 128 cities with special teachers approve of competitive athletics, three disapprove of competitive athletics and ten did not answer. One hundred and two of the 128 cities with special teachers have high school athletic organizations. In 427 cities without special teachers 323 approve, 24 disapprove, 8 are doubtful, 72 did not answer. Two hundred and forty-three of these 427 cities have high school athletic organizations.

#### GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

There is considerable difference of opinion among

the superintendents regarding the desirability of competitive athletics for grammar school boys. (Question 19.) In the 128 cities with special teachers forty-three approve of competitive athletics (as against one hundred and fifteen for high schools), thirty-six disapprove (three in high schools), seven are doubtful and forty-two did not answer. In the 427 cities *without* special teachers 176 (323 in high school) superintendents approve of competitive sports for grammar school boys, 122 dsapprove (against 24 in high school), 12 are doubtful, 117 did not answer. In the high schools 438 approve, 27 disapprove. In the grammar schools 219 approve, 158 disapprove.

The approval of competitive work in the high school by the superintendents is large and generous, in the grammar schools it is grudgingly given, with 158 who disapprove. Twenty-six or less than five per cent. of the cities report grammar school athletic organizations. Three hundred and forty-five or sixty-two per cent. of the cities report high school athletic organizations. The grammar school boy is not yet ready for strenuous competition nor has he developed organizing ability.

In most cases the high school boys need more thorough care and supervision than they secure. This supervision is gradually being forced upon the public schools by the evils in athletics. Whether athletics have a good or bad effect on boys depends upon the way they are managed. Athletics well managed should be under the direction of a regular teacher who is responsible for the coaching, physical condition, finances and the discipline during the games and while traveling. His tact and leadership should secure a generous reception to all visiting teams and should encourage high ideals of courtesy and fair play.

The chief evils enumerated by the superintendents were injury to health and morals, dishonest coaches,

neglect of work, jealousy, waste of time, energy and money, gambling, tendencies toward professionalism and neglect of the many for the few.

Four deaths were reported (true deaths); one said to be from exertion, one from football, two without the reasons. One of the men reporting a death said: "The good results were too numerous to mention." Most of the men placed the blame for the evils on the lack of supervision rather than on the sport.

The good points emphasized were school spirit, physical, mental and moral health, increased school attendance, rendering discipline easier, raising the standard of scholarship, developing self-control, business ability, manliness, proficiency, thrift, nerve, force, courage, making them more alert, less sensitive. A study of the evils and benefits given by the superintendents would indicate that the benefits on the whole were considerably greater than the evils. Many of the evils seem to be due to bad management or lack of supervision.

The corrective work introduced by the educators to counteract the school desk with its confinement has come to stay. It fills a real need. The athletics introduced largely by the boys is also necessary. They have with instinctive discernment selected the sports requiring courage, manliness and physical vigor.

These inherent impulses of the boys should be more carefully directed. Rightly guided they afford large opportunity for both moral and physical development.

All school sports should be under the management of the school with expert supervision.

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## ATHLETICS AND PHYSICAL TRAINING.

GEORGE WITTICH,  
NORMAL SCHOOL, N. A. GYMNASIUM UNION,  
MILWAUKEE.

(Editorial.)

Athletics, i. e., track and field work and games, can be made a valuable factor in the physical training of the young if brought into conformity with the rules of pedagogy and hygiene; but the same *can never supplant* a physical training which, at the same time, gives due attention to the various forms of free exercises, vaulting and exercises in hang and support.

I base this assertion on the following: Athletics alone can, if carefully applied, improve the health, strength, agility, alertness and endurance of the young, but will otherwise exercise a one-sided influence upon the physical development of the same.

In all forms of jumping, and, to some degree, in running, the flexors of the trunk are more active than the extensors, and throwing the discus, hammer and ball, and also shot-put, are practical in a decidedly one-sided manner.

This one-sided influence can, on the one hand, be balanced by suitable trunk exercises, and, on the other, by having the pupils use the other arm to better advantage than before.

Long continued sitting, such as becomes necessary during school life, very often brings about faulty postures which must be given attention. Athletics have not the corrective influence upon faulty postures of shoulder blades, head and upper part of trunk which well-known exercises in hang-standing, with assistance or resistance, or certain free exercises have.



Athletics have, furthermore, no beneficial influence upon the carriage of the body, such as balance exercises and other free exercises have.

My greatest objections, however, to the manner in which athletics are conducted in the schools of America are:

1. The end in view is the athletic tournament, and not physical education of the entire young.
2. This viewpoint necessitates the training of a few and the promotion of specialization.
3. Specialization is the curse of all physical training.

The following German day's order has proved satisfactory:

1. Introductory and preparatory exercises, including a short run, hygienic, corrective and co-ordinative free exercises with or without hand apparatus.
2. Athletics—Jumping, vaulting, etc.
3. Exercises on apparatus in hang and support.
4. Games.

In conclusion, I again wish to emphasize the fact that athletics, on account of the lack of the corrective and hygienic elements, can never supplant a carefully graded system of physical training complying with all the rules of pedagogy and hygiene.

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## Department of Peace Instruction.

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### EDITORIAL.

MRS. LUCIA AMES MEAD, BOSTON, MASS.

CHAIRMAN OF PEACE AND ARBITRATION DEPARTMENT OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN, BOSTON.

Mrs. Mead called attention to the fact that for the first time in the history of American Educational Conventions a session had been allotted to this subject of new and vital importance which henceforth must occupy a place in modern education. Last year, at the Teachers' International Conference at Liege, in which eighteen nations were represented, one whole day had been devoted to the subject of "Peace Teaching in the Schools." At the Congress held at Lille in 1905, the Association of French public school teachers, with a membership of 15,000, declared in its resolutions that their watchword was "War against War."

This warfare must be waged by constructive work for world organization. Every teacher should read Raymond Bridgman's little book, entitled "World Organization," a remarkable discussion of a new and little understood subject. The popular notion that war will not end before the millenium and that human nature must be changed before civilized nations cease to slaughter each other, was shown to be crude and unwarranted by precedent. Less than one hundred men in four months in 1787 had removed the causes of friction between thirteen irritable colonies, and prevented

anyone ever fighting any other single state, and all this without any change of human nature. Civil war, it must be noted, is in a category by itself, and, theoretically, may last longer than international war. But the latter is doomed, as its remedies are already at hand. Despite increase of armament everywhere, despite our nation having advanced its cost for them two hundred times while it had increased in population only twenty times, the movement for the ending of international duelling was never so strong as it is today.

Mrs. Mead referred with keen regret to the preponderance of military exhibits at the forthcoming "educational" exposition at Jamestown. The pageantry of warfare could express only one small aspect of its real significance, and on the untrained mind would be most misleading. The teaching of a true patriotism was an essential part of the teaching of a true internationalism. Memorial day and Peace day should never inculcate antagonistic doctrines. Earnest efforts to end future war involves no lack of appreciation of the sacrifices of the men who lay down their lives to preserve the Union and free the slave. Patriotism has no essential relation to militarism. Nine-tenths of the time, civic patriotism has been the only kind possible in a country that has been nine-tenths of its history at peace. "Mere good citizenship" must be exalted in the child's mind and shown to be that form of patriotism in which we are chiefly deficient. Service of country, not worship of ancestors, pride of race or nationality, is the only test of patriotism, and that service must chiefly be a constant, inveterate warfare against the worst enemies of the nation—greed, corruption, ignorance, disease. Untruth may be inculcated in certain patriotic songs if the teacher is not careful to correct such misstatements as, "Then conquer we must, When our cause it is just." In all peace instruction let the

teacher be careful to place justice as the first consideration and to condemn war not so much because of its waste and misery, but because in the nature of the case it can no more assure the triumph of justice than can a duel. The strong and clever always win, irrespective of the right at issue, whenever the result depends on armor-plate or markmanship.

The Department of Peace Instruction supplied a table with specially prepared literature, sold at cost price, and published by the American Peace Society and by Edwin Ginn, both of Beacon street, Boston. Free distribution was made of certain leaflets, including one upon the Teaching of History in the Public Schools, which was prepared by Dr. Mowry, Col. Sprague and Mrs. Andrews.

The resolutions offered by Mrs. Andrews, which were passed at the session and which were afterwards adopted by the Institute, resulted in the appointment of the following committee to report on a plan to organize the teachers of the country for an active campaign of peace instruction in the schools.

Nathan C. Schaeffer,  
Walter E. Ranger,  
William A. Mowry,  
Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews,  
Homer B. Sprague,  
Lucia Ames Mead,  
Mrs. George H. Purington.

A resolution offered by Mrs. Mead was accepted by the Institute and sent to President Roosevelt, requesting him to include limitation of armaments and the establishment of a permanent World Assembly, in his recommendations to the second Hague Conference.

## THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

WILLIAM A. MOWRY,  
PH.D., LL.D.

George Bancroft begins his history of the formation of the constitution with these pregnant queries: "Do nations float darkling down the stream of the ages without hope or consolation, swaying with every wind and ignorant whither they are drifting? Or is there a superior power of intelligence and tone, which is moved by justice and shapes their course?"

This hint calls to mind the motto: "Man proposes but God disposes." While all adult and reasoning minds should be carefully observant of the logic of history, of cause and effect, of the "drift of events," yet the teachers of boys and girls under, say, fourteen years of age, may well be cautious not to burden the minds of the pupils with too much cause and effect. The reasoning powers of the child are developed quite slowly and sometimes children intuitively discern the connection and relation of events more successfully and with greater accuracy than if such connection and relations were forced upon them.

I propose at this time briefly to call your attention, first to the force and function of history in the curriculum of the common school, and, second, to inquire whether some improvements may not be made in the current manner of presenting historical matter in the school text books, particularly as it regards periods of war and peace. I suppose all mature minds who have given proper attention to history will agree that it is a study of the greatest importance. I suppose all such will admit that it is desirable to know something of the ancient civilizations, the development of Egypt,

Persia, India, the Jewish nation,—not to mention China—of Greece and Rome in the morning of the civilization of Europe.

Indeed, how can we comprehend the unfolding of the leaves of modern civilization, that is, of European history, without bearing in mind the following facts, viz.:

That in the very ancient times there sprang up three distinct and separate civilizations, using three distinct languages, the Coptic, the Semitic and the Sanscrit; that these started on the banks of three rivers; that the Hindoo civilization gave to the world the most perfect language and the most subtle philosophy; the Semitic race gave three great religions,—the Jewish, the Christian and the Mohammedan; the Coptic gave us the mechanical arts.

That all of the modern civilization of Europe was produced by separate immigrations of people, not from the Euphrates, nor the Nile, but all of them from the Indus. These separate and distinct migrations were the Keltic, the Pelasgic, the Teutonic, the Slavic.

The Keltic race are now found only among the Scotch Highlanders, the Irish, the Welsh, and a few in Brittany in France. The Pelasgic race are seen to-day in all southern Europe. The Teutonic race are now found in Germany, Austria, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and the people of England and her colonies, including our own great republic. The later immigrants, the Slavic race, today are the people of Russia.

These statements call your attention only to the origin of our modern civilization as to races and languages.

Do not forget that another great migration, this time from Great Britain, has peopled the Atlantic slope of North America, nor that the descendants of their pioneers have crossed the Alleghanies and spread



over the great valley of the Ohio and the Mississippi, and that their children have crossed the Rocky mountains and reclaimed the fertile lands of the Pacific slope.

The importance of any history is measured by what that history has done in promoting civilization, uplifting mankind, elevating humanity. No history is of any worth which throws no light upon the progress of civilization. In accordance with this rule we shall find that the history of our country is the most important, the most useful and the most interesting for children today in the annals of the world. There are conclusive reasons for this statement:

1. It is the history of our own country and much of it nearest to our own times.

2. The advancement of our country has been more rapid than that of any other nation.

3. We have increased in the growth and broadening of our industries faster than has been the case with any other people.

4. We have developed more rapidly in knowledge, intelligence, learning and inventions than any other.

5. We have excelled the whole world in inventions of every variety, especially in respect to labor saving machines and modes of transportation and communication.

6. We are to a greater extent than others a nation of readers.

7. We have excelled all others in the general diffusion of intelligence among the masses and in the acquirement by all classes of the means for furnishing to themselves both the necessities and the luxuries of life.

8. We have done more than all others to promote the public good, to alleviate suffering, to provide all sorts of eleemosynary institutions for the defective

classes and for sufferers of all sorts—in a word, we have excelled in all altruistic work

We are blessed with a large variety of books suitable for the purpose. We have histories in abundance for the youngest readers, for the lower grades of the grammar schools, for the upper grades, for high schools and academies, for the colleges and for the general reader. Of the larger and more extensive works it is not necessary here to speak, but it is not a little singular that one of the best governmental histories of the American Revolution was written by an Italian (Botta); that one of the most exact and reliable of the narrative histories was written at the time by an Englishman (Dr. Gordon); that one of the best histories of our Civil War was written by a Frenchman (Count de Paris), and, of course, everyone knows the value of DeToqueville's "American Democracy."

Of the regular text books for the schools, numbering in all something like one hundred, those more recently published show many improvements over the books of half a century ago. There has been a marked improvement in the style of the books. The moral element is in many cases regarded more than formerly, although there seems a chance for further improvement in this respect. The connection of cause and effect is often much clearer in the more recent books. Within the past ten or twenty years a striking change for the better has appeared in many books in regard to fairness and good judgment upon controverted points, sectional issues and international questions. It is evidently true that the authors of these text books have been led, by one cause and another, to use less dogmatism and more charity and so to look upon views not their own with more tolerance and soundness.

Yet it is still clearly evident that there are great

difficulties in correctly interpreting the facts of history. In the first place it is a task requiring great patience and a fair mind to determine what are the facts of history, and when these have been decided upon to give them their true interpretation.

I come now to consider one more important matter in connection with the teaching of American history, and that is in regard to the best method of unfolding the facts of the different periods of war and peace. Hitherto in the history of the world the principal interest has been centered upon international wars. These conflicts at arms have been so numerous and have involved such important interests that not only historians, but the entire people, have paid very little attention to matters of peaceful epochs, but have exhausted their interest in times of war on military conflicts. A little more than a year ago the American Peace Society, rightly reading the signs of the times, observing the people uniting in opposition, appointed a committee to report on the teaching of history in public schools with reference to war and peace. After wide research and labor the committee published and circulated their report. The committee examined several text books of American history for upper grades, which were divided into groups of ten according to date of publication. The first ten, from 1843 to 1885, show almost forty per cent. of the entire history between the middle of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century devoted to the details of wars, although these wars occupied but a fifth or sixth of the time. The second ten, from 1885 to 1897, average 28 1-2 per cent. war history. The third group between 1890 and 1904 average less than 27 per cent.; the fourth group during the last six years have less than 25 per cent.

The second set examined, those of the lower grades,

numbered twenty. The average war history in the first ten prior to 1896 was over 31 per cent., and the second since 1896 less than 27 per cent. The average of the forty grammar school books was under 30 per cent. and of the entire sixty, 29.5 per cent. The committee also examined ten books of high school and academy grade and the average war history was 25 per cent.

By these figures it is seen that while most books give too much space to war periods, yet the evil is diminishing. It is hoped that public sentiment will continue to change until authors omit the details of campaigns and battles and insert the important action of The Hague Tribunal. The report mentioned says: "The first step in successful teaching is to interest the pupil. Children are fond of stories of adventure. Thrilling tales and brave deeds always have a charm for them. Hence the temptation to dwell minutely and graphically on the details of wars. It should, however, of course, be equally clear that in the hands of competent writers the lives of pioneers, biographical incidents, stories of inventions, discoveries, achievements of success and the full routine of life in times of peace may be made as interesting as the narrative of campaigns and battles. Here, then, is where the skillful writer will have his greatest opportunity in future."

It is clearly apparent that the last half century has developed along the line of peaceful industries much to interest the young, which may in the near future find a place in our school text books. Indeed, many of our latest books have introduced with great success accounts of the invention and use of the steam plow, machines for planting, hay-making and harvesting, telegraphy and telephony, the modern palace car and the ocean steamer, the typewriter and sewing machine, the bicycle and automobile. You may be sure

that our inventors have not yet reached the end of the rope.

Wars are becoming so expensive and such death-dealing instruments, so destructive of life, that it surely is necessary for all nations to seek for a substitute. So far The Hague Tribunal has been invented. This important step forward gives us another holiday which ought to be observed by appropriate exercises in every school in the country. This tribunal first assembled at The Hague on the 18th of May, 1899. The schools of many states have already begun to observe this as international peace day.

Already steps have been taken for a second Hague conference and it has been suggested that the representatives of the different nations at this conference proceed to establish a permanent international advisory congress. So it is likely that the time may come when, just as our forty-six individual states submit successfully all their disputes to be settled by a National Congress, Supreme Court and chief executive, so all the several civilized states of the world may with equal or greater success submit all their difficulties to an international court parliament and executive. Then the prophecies of Joel, of Micah and Isaiah, the three old-time Jewish prophets, who flourished centuries before our Saviour appeared on earth, will be fulfilled.

"Then He shall judge between many peoples and shall reprove strong nations afar off; and they shall beat their swords into plowshares and their spears into pruning hooks; nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they have war any more."

Then shall be consummated the dream of the past, which foresaw "The parliament of Man. The federation of the World."

## THE OBSERVANCE OF PEACE DAY IN THE SCHOOLS.

MRS. FANNIE FERN ANDREWS,  
CHAIRMAN, EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE,  
ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE ALUMNAE, BOSTON.

My address this morning will deal with three considerations: First, the reasons for celebrating the Eighteenth of May; second, the character of the celebration; and, third, the extent to which the day has been observed.

The Eighteenth of May is the anniversary of the opening of the first world congress, meeting in the interests of universal peace. Why should we celebrate the day? Why, in fact, should we celebrate the anniversary of any significant event in the world's history? We observe the Twenty-second of February, the Thirtieth of May and the Fourth of July in order to recall to mind the principles for which these commemorative days stand, principles which have influenced the actions of people and have promoted great and noble achievements. We celebrate Christmas Day in order to commemorate the birth of Christ, which ushered in a new era, the era of good-will toward men, and gave a new impetus to the progressive development of the human race. The Eighteenth of May, 1899, is a landmark in this development; it stamps the beginning of a new world epoch, in which moral and social progress will culminate in the triumph of justice and peace, and universal brotherhood. The cultivation of such sentiments should be stimulated; and an appropriate observance of the



Eighteenth of May affords an opportunity for inculcating these virtues into the life of man.

The child's mind is the most fertile ground in which to sow this seed, and the teacher, acting in the service of humanity, is privileged to fulfill the task. He should set aside the Eighteenth of May in every year in order to appeal to the children for their active support of the principles of justice, peace and universal brotherhood.

On this occasion the pupil should be told of the principal forces leading up to the calling of The Hague Conference, of the work of this Congress, the definite results so far accomplished, and the achievements yet hoped for. The forces which brought about this world gathering are two-fold: the unconscious, constructive work of the nations, and the conscious, definite movement for the federation of the world. The former is exemplified by the growing spirit of co-operation among the peoples, and the latter by the propaganda of the peace societies, the first of which was formed in the United States in 1815. This same year inaugurated a permanent system of co-operation among the nations, when the powers of Europe sent delegates to Vienna for the purpose of bringing order out of the political chaos left by the Napoleonic campaigns. Since that time there have been thirty international congresses, in the interests of industry, science, government and humanitarianism, the fruitful results of which have continually strengthened the bond of brotherhood among the nations. When, therefore, the Czar of Russia issued his manifesto in August, 1898, declaring that the ravages of the war system were threatening the moral and material welfare of the world, it was but logical that the nations responded to his invitation to send delegates to a

conference for the discussion of this question of common concern.

Alongside of the congresses, the system of arbitration, beginning with the Jay Treaty in 1794, and followed by the rational settlement of over two hundred and fifty international difficulties, inevitably developed the spirit of co-operation and a desire for the abolition of war, thus paving the way directly for a world peace congress.

Together with all this, the constantly increasing intercourse of the nations in industry, education, religion, science, literature, art and philanthropy, interweaving the sympathies and interests of the peoples into one common purpose, created a world demand for some means of checking the war system which was hindering the progress of all these activities. The call to The Hague was welcomed as an effort in this direction.

This unconscious movement, which has culminated in this great congress for world co-operation, has been directed by a conscious force working for the federation of the world. The leading power in this movement has been the American Peace Society. Formed ninety-one years ago, it has exerted a tremendous influence in educating public opinion in favor of peace; through its efforts many societies of women and nearly a hundred business men's organizations of this country have pledged themselves to work for peace. From its very inception it has worked with a clear and true vision of the progressive steps for world federation; and it has made itself felt in the halls of Congress, when this body has been dealing with affairs that concern the interrelation of nations. It originated the international peace congresses, and has seen develop more than four hundred and fifty peace socie-

ties, formed into a great international organization with its annual congresses and its permanent bureau at Berne, which conveys to the governments of the world the recommendations of these congresses. The president of the American Peace Society in 1872 organized the International Law Association, which consists of over four hundred members, among whom are a number of the most distinguished jurists of the world. This is one of the foremost agencies working for universal peace. Co-ordinate with this great body is the Interparliamentary Union, composed of more than fifteen hundred voluntary representatives of the governments of the world, who are laying out practical directions for a world government.

Such, then, are the conscious and unconscious forces which have brought about The Hague Conference, an appreciation of which will instill into the young mind the desire for justice, peace and universal brotherhood.

So, also, will a knowledge of the careful, conscientious work of the congress stimulate these sentiments into earnest activity. The subjects on the program were assigned among the one hundred members to three large committees, one on armaments, one on the rules of war, and the third on arbitration. Though the conference had been called primarily to consider the first subject, the committee, realizing that disarmament could not take place until a substitute for war had been provided, left the matter with a resolution, declaring that the welfare of humanity demanded the limitation of military equipments.

The committee on the laws of war adopted a body of improved rules, making war less barbarous than it has been heretofore.

The third committee, however, that on arbitration,

performed the great constructive work of the congress—the signing of the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, providing for international commissions of inquiry, special mediation by neutral powers and the creation of a permanent International Court of Arbitration.

Following up the results of the Congress, it can be seen how the provision for international commissions made it possible for the North Sea incident between Great Britain and Russia to be settled peacefully by a committee of investigation; and how Article 3 of the Convention, providing for special mediation, enabled President Roosevelt to offer his services in bringing to a close the Russo-Japanese War. The adjudication of the four cases since The Hague Court opened in May, 1902, participated in by almost all the first class powers of the world; the signing of forty treaties of obligatory arbitration, pledging reference of disputes to The Hague Court; the disarmament of Chile and Argentina; the calling of the second peace congress—all results of this first peace gathering—reflecting the efficient and practical work of these hundred delegates, prove that reason, justice and brotherhood are practical principles in international relations.

Understanding the work and the results of the Congress and their effect on the cause of peace, the child will catch the inspiration of this progressive movement and gain an outlook into the future. He will see that The Hague Court will inevitably develop into a genuine world court of the nations; that the logical outcome of the numerous world congresses will be a permanent international congress, composed of delegates from all nations of the world.

But not only can the principles for which the Eighteenth of May stands be inoculated by an explana-

tion of the event itself; these virtues can also be stimulated by quotations from great statesmen, writers and generals,—quotations from Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Sumner, Lincoln and John Hay; from Emerson, Channing, Lowell, Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes and Tennyson; from Napoleon, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan and Hooker.

And the songs of peace should sound forth in the schoolroom on this day as the bugle that calls together these growing warriors of peace.

And what are these songs? Shall we sing our national airs? Surely, not "The Army and Navy Forever," or "Hail, Columbia! Happy Land," or "The Star Spangled Banner."

"Immortal patriots! rise once more;  
Defend your rights, defend your shore.  
Let no rude foe with impious hand  
Invade the shrine where, sacred, lies  
Of toil and blood the well-earned prize,"

are not words that will inspire the children with the idea of universal brotherhood, although they were eminently appropriate when they were published in 1799, when the independence of this country was threatened both by England and France

The spirit of revenge breathed into the words:

Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution!

No refuge could save the hireling and slave  
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave,"

is inconsistent with the principles for which the 18th of May stands. The "Star Spangled Banner" will not stimulate the desire for justice, peace and universal brotherhood.

There is no scarcity of peace songs, however; they have only to be selected. "America," "The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England," "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," "The Blue and the Gray," and a host of other peace songs can be used to commemorate the anniversary of the First Peace Congress.

It is gratifying to note that the schools have begun to celebrate the 18th of May. Last year, Hon. George H. Martin, Secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, directed a letter to the superintendents of schools in the Commonwealth, requesting that "appropriate exercises be held in the schools of Massachusetts on May 18th for the purpose of emphasizing the blessings of peace, of showing the superiority of arbitration over war, and of exalting the brotherhood of nations." In response to this, the day was generally observed in several cities and towns in the state. In Ohio, in response to a similar letter, sent out by the State Superintendent of Instruction, the day was observed in a few places, and many single schools throughout the country had appropriate exercises.

This year, the Secretary of the American Peace Society sent a circular letter to the fifty State and Territory Superintendents of public instruction, requesting that they recommend the general celebration of the 18th of May in their schools, and offering suggestions as to material for the observance. In five states and possibly in others,—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Jersey, and Ohio, the state superintendent recommended the celebration of the day. It is quite impossible to tell just how far the day has been observed. There are many individual teachers throughout the country who are doing and have been doing excellent work in this direction.

The teachers of the United States have not been as



active, however, in this direction as their co-workers in Europe who have taken the initiative in carrying out an active campaign for peace.

The Association of French Public School Teachers, numbering more than fifteen thousand in its membership, has declared as a body its intention to teach the ideas of peace. The International Congress of Public School Teachers, which met at Liettich in 1905, with representatives from eighteen nations, passed resolutions to the effect that the principles of peace should permeate all teaching, and that the history of the wars of conquest should be supplanted by the history of the great constructive workers of the world. They recommended that two peace festivals be held annually in all the schools of the civilized nations, one on the 22nd of February and one on the 18th of May.

Surely the American teachers ought not to be behind in this work. Citizens of a country which is the home of the first peace society in the world, they should lead in this great movement, destined to elevate the whole human race; they should instill into the young mind the sentiments expressed so beautifully in the words of Tennyson:

“And let the fair white-winged peacemaker fly  
To happy havens under all the sky.

And mix the seasons and the golden hours,

## Department of Home and School.

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### Report of the Secretary

This Department was called to order in Dwight Hall, Yale University, on Wednesday, July 11, 1906, at 11.15 A. M.

The President, Mrs. Atherton, and Vice-President, Mrs. Irons, both being unavoidably absent, Mrs. Frances Sheldon Bolton, President of the Connecticut Congress of Mothers, presided.

The first speaker was Mr. Arthur D. Call, Supervisor of Schools in Hartford, Connecticut, his subject being "The Schools and the Public". Miss Mary M. Abbott, Chairman Education Committee of General Federation of Women's Clubs, followed with an address on "Women's Organizations and the Schools".

Miss Laura D. Gill, Dean of Barnard College, next spoke on the subject, "Women's Clubs and the Higher Education". She presented a request which has been received from the American Woman's Club in London, England, that each state in the Union support endowments for two scholarships for college women, similar to the Cecil Rhoades scholarship for men. Miss Gill added the following cautions and amendments, if the plan should be adopted in any form. First, that the states make annual appropriations instead of raising endowment funds. Second, that the students be allowed choice of all foreign universities, instead of limiting the choice to England.

President Schaeffer, of the National Education Association, opened a discussion which proved interesting, though it was limited in time by the lateness of the hour.

The Department adjourned at one o'clock, to meet again on Thursday morning, July 12, in the same hall.

Mrs. C. H. Briscoe, President of the Connecticut Federation of Women's Clubs, presided. The general topic was "What Can Parent's Associations Accomplish?" The gratifying experience of certain districts in Boston along this line was very ably presented by Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Chairman

Education Committee Boston Branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae. Mrs. Andrews showed that great help has come to both parents and teachers through such organizations.

Mrs. Frances Sheldon Bolton read a paper on the same subject, stating that the Mothers' Congress is working for the formation of Parent's Associations. A short discussion followed, opened by Mrs. Frederick B. Street, of East Haven, Conn.

Mrs. Grice, of Philadelphia, Corresponding Secretary of the National Congress of Mothers, offered the following resolutions, which were unanimously approved :

*Resolved* :—That Parents' and Teachers' Associations should be a part of every school system.

That parents, teachers and school officials should co-operate in forming such Associations.

Adjourned.

LUCRETIA STOW CUMMINGS,  
*Secretary.*

## THE SCHOOLS AND THE PUBLIC—THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM.

ARTHUR D. CALL,  
SUPERVISOR OF SCHOOLS,  
HARTFORD, CONN.

The public schools of this country are highly specialized forms of delegated influence and authority. Collectively, they constitute the most unique expression of co-operative effort in the history of the race. Five hundred thousand persons teaching twenty million others at an annual public expense of \$500,000,000 is a colossal proportioned affair. At first the relation of the public to the schools was the relation of cause to effect. At present, the interacting influences between the public and its schools constitute a complex situation needing constant study and attention.

### DAME PUBLIC.

Dame Public is mightily interested in herself, particularly sensitive about her own affairs. Pull her purse strings the least bit too hard and, behold, how alive! She knows where she keeps her brooms. If in the quietude of her even ways she discovers her insurance bill dishonest, out comes a broom and the death of a few financial magnates is announced in the morning papers. If her railroads don't suit her they are treated to both ends of a broom until they promise to be good. If her potted meats are not prepared to please, out comes her special broom which she has cherishingly called Roosevelt, and, well, the kitchen is cleaned.

## THE DAME AND HER SCHOOLS

Being employed by this mercurial lady in the capacity of servants, we school teachers are peculiarly sensitive that her attitude toward us shall be sweet and friendly. Of course, we are trying very hard not to steal her money. We are under great obligations to her for our large and munificent salaries, and for our time off—Saturday nights, meal times and several hours' sleep each week. We mix up with her kitchen very little, it is too expensive. Her insurance troubles are profound mysteries to us. We cannot afford to meddle with her railroads much. All of these matters are quite beyond us.

We are particularly anxious that she shall not catch us loafing. She certainly must respect our wisdom after all our valiant struggles to hide the facts of how little we really know. Considering how sleeplessly vigilant she has been of late, we have escaped thus far with surprisingly few scratches. If her name were Mary we might be pardoned for quoting from that cherished classic which runs in part:

“What makes the lamb love Mary so?  
The eager children cry;  
Because Mary loves the lamb, you know.”

## THE PROBLEM NOT NEW.

That we should carefully study this relation between the school and the public is no new thought. “The sum of education is right training in the nursery.” Blessed assurance, this. So long as they keep the nursery at home our reputation is safe. My only objection to the kindergarten is that someone may interpret it as a nursery and hold us teachers responsible

for the "sum of education." The public schools of America seem in constant danger of being held responsible for about everything good and everything evil in our national life.

#### THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF EDUCATION.

I bring three suggestive propositions as my contribution to the discussion.

My first thought is that felicitous relations between public and school depend today more than ever upon a better selection of teachable subject-matter, to the end that the old formal subjects, reading, writing and arithmetic, shall appear more attractive and necessary to the child. Reading, writing and arithmetic are but means to ends. They are not, and never have been, of value in themselves. They really count only as they bring to the child a fuller measure of life.

The charge that "the public school is not practical" is usually the result of a superheated grievance inside some irate parent. Not long ago I was waited upon by one of these irates because I could not excuse his boy from school for a week without some form of an excuse. He was not only irate; he was a Scotchman. His fundamental proposition was: "I want to tell you that the schools of this city ain't worth a d—." I was interested at once. I said, "Would you mind telling me just why you have arrived at this definite conclusion?" "Yes, sir!" he replied. "You go on teaching history, manual training, sewing, cooking and a lot of other rot and leave arithmetic to the dogs. They taught arithmetic when I was a boy. We had to learn it, too." "Good!" I said. "Now you ought to be a judge of this matter. Your boy is in our seventh grade. Here is an arithmetic test we gave recently in that grade. Ninety per cent. of our pupils passed it



without difficulty. How were you taught to solve that first problem?" I need not burden you by relating the whole scene. The puzzled look, the intense attempt to understand that problem, the white, then red, color in the face, the stammering and confused apologies as that arithmetician of the old school went down before each succeeding problem, perfectly familiar to our seventh grade children, became painful to me. That man's last words to me as we parted that night were very conciliatory. He said: "I never apologize, Mr. Call; but, well, I sha'n't need that boy out of school at all." This is an illustration of the fact I would emphasize, that we are teaching arithmetic better than ever before.

Perhaps the most promising recent tendency in education is the emphasis upon the social aspect of the educating process. All writers agree that the schools must quicken the social sense. It is not impossible that our present school activities are to undergo a marked modification. The tendency is certainly in this direction. There is a growing demand for more manual work of a productive kind, in all grades, and for more instruction in the cost and nature of materials.

The public wants serviceable efficiency. Give this to boys and girls, and there will be little chance of a problem between your public and your school. Retain reading, writing and some arithmetic, of course; but teach these as incidental to interesting tasks worth while. This is my first principle for retaining the support of the public.

#### GREATER PUBLICITY.

My second contention is that excellent work in the schools is not enough; but that the public must know that the work is excellent. For two years of my experience as superintendent of schools I ran two col-

umns of school news each week in the Saturday night edition of our city's newspaper. Most of the "stories" were simple gossip about the schools; some were educational philosophy in homeopathic paragraphs. I believe this did good. A yearly school report is seldom read. Work sent home by pupils is not enough. "Parents' meetings" are not enough. "Visiting days" are not enough. In addition to these I urge the value of the school exhibit.

The only sure way for any institution to be on a safe footing with the public is to hide nothing and show everything.

My second point is that the schools will promote friendly relations with the public by courting a thorough public examination of their books at least once each year.

#### A GOOD SCHOOL.

Third, the public will be a submissive proposition if only the school be a good school. We may have child-study, parents' meetings, education societies, women clubs, perfection in courses of study, and exhibitions to the end of time, and they are all good; but the final test is the quality of youth the school offers to the world.

My thought is that Dame Public will behave acceptably toward a socially efficient, well-manned school, if she knows about it.

## WOMEN'S CLUBS AND THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

MISS LAURA D. GILL,  
DEAN, BARNARD COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

## (Editorial)

Each state should support two endowments for scholarships for women, similar to the Cecil Rhodes scholarships.

## SUGGESTIONS.

1. Whatever plan is taken up, let the states make annual appropriations for its support, rather than tie up money in endowments.
2. Let the students go anywhere in the world, not to one country only.
3. Let The Federation of Women's Clubs establish in each state (a) a two year scholarship for the most promising college graduate (woman) for further study; (b) establish a similar scholarship for the most promising, alert young teacher.
4. Let Women's Clubs do something for the *social* conditions of the women's colleges—the intellectual conditions are already pretty good. Let them also spread a *desire* for higher education.

All women's organizations, state and national, are now interested in education. Women can affect public sentiment. Five great organizations are now affiliating on the following basis:

1. *All* children in the United States should be educated. (Work for compulsory education laws in all states.)

2. All schools should be suitably housed. (Inter-State School Association to work for buildings.)

3. All children should have *good* teachers. (Work for higher salaries to attract into the profession desirable material. Work for minimum professional standard laws in all states.)

4. Good supervision should be universal. (Work towards compulsory supervision.)

5. The product should be: knowledge, efficiency, character. (Women emphasize character as the most essential of the three.)

Till each man finds his own in all men's good,  
And all men work in noble brotherhood."

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## WHAT CAN PARENTS' ASSOCIATIONS ACCOMPLISH?

FANNIE FERN ANDREWS, BOSTON,  
CHAIRMAN, EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE, ASSOCIATION OF  
COLLEGIATE ALUMNAE.

The formation of parents' associations connected with the schools is a part of the wider movement for the social utilization of the school plant. Within recent years it has come to the minds of many that the public school, with its expensive equipment, should be used for the public benefit more than five hours a day, five days in the week, and forty weeks in the year. Evening schools, playgrounds, vacation schools, school gardens, evening lectures, educational centers, mothers' clubs, and parents' associations are expressions of the conviction that the school should be the common educational and social center of the neighborhood; that

its functions are no longer confined to the narrow boundaries of a school for children. These various forms of educational extension have proved that the school is capable of becoming a stimulus to the higher intellectual and social life of the people. The movement has gone on almost of itself, in many parts of the country, which indicates a common desire among the people to make the school serve all members of the community.

The first step in the extension of the use of school buildings beyond the traditional five-hour limit, was the evening school, the purpose of which was to offer evening academic instruction to those engaged in work during the day-time. Begun many years ago, the haphazard course of study is developing into a graded and progressive course of instruction ranging from primary through high school work. This development is keeping a fair pace with the new subjects introduced into the day school and is adapting itself more and more to the particular needs of the pupils. With this progress in the character and arrangement of the subject matter, moreover, has come a corresponding improvement in the quality of the teaching; and the two have combined to increase the attendance and establish the evening school as an integral part of the public school system.

The evening school, therefore, is an extension of the function of the public day school along similar lines and for a similar purpose, namely,—the acquirement of an academic education. Gradually there grew into shape the idea that the school should minister to other needs of the community besides the purely educational. The playground and vacation school movement sought to open school yards where children could enjoy various amusements in safety, and to utilize the

schoolhouses for recreation, study and instruction. This special educational service is unquestionably of great benefit, especially to the poorer children of the crowded districts whose only playground is the street. In affording a means of healthful amusement, in keeping the children from the pernicious influence of the streets, and in cultivating the habit of useful occupation, the vacation school has justified its right to be placed upon as permanent a basis as the regular day schools. In fact, vacation schools have been adopted as part of the public school system in nearly all the large cities of the country, and in many rural towns.

The school garden is another evidence of the idea that the school should extend its functions. Beginning first as an adjunct to nature study work, developing into the vegetable garden with individual plots, it has, along with other school activities, extended its influence to the home. Thus we have the home garden. Both the school garden and the home garden have demonstrated their worth as permanent factors in the education of the child. They are found in cities, and in rural districts.

More than fifteen years ago a few discerning people thought out a further plan for extending education to the adult population—courses of free evening lectures. The interest on the part of the people and the systematic arrangement of the lectures, endeavoring to meet all tastes and capacities, lead one to believe that these courses might easily develop into a people's university affording an opportunity for all people to acquire through the lecture system the elements of a broad, general education from the best teachers. "No power," quotes Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, supervisor of lectures in New York City, "in human experience has wrought such mighty influence as the spoken word." New



York, undoubtedly, gives us the best example of this extension of the school system.

The next notable development in the school extension movement is the educational center. This idea has probably been worked out more fully in Boston than in any other place. The motive here has been to offer any kind of educational opportunity that would appeal to the inclinations of the people of a given neighborhood. The educational center also provides opportunities for the children of school age to come to the schoolrooms in the evening for study and recreation and aims to gather boys from the street and organize them in clubs. Experience has shown that a schedule largely confined to industrial lines attracts the greatest number of people. Instruction in domestic science, dressmaking, millinery, civil service, steam engineering, electricity, mechanical drawing, physical training, with the addition of music, popular lectures and entertainments, have proved eminently adapted to the needs of a particular neighborhood. The whole aim has seemed to be to make the schoolhouse a social focus from which will emanate influences that will refine and elevate the social status of a neighborhood. The financial question has checked the growth of the educational center in Boston which began in April, 1902, although the importance of continuing and developing this idea has become fully recognized.

Mothers' clubs and parents' associations represent another step in the social utilization of the schools. This movement began with the kindergarten which established the custom of holding mothers' meetings. In these meetings, the mothers and kindergartner talk over the children and discuss the functions of the home as related to those of the school. In many places, this mutual co-operation between kindergartner and mother

has grown until regularly organized mothers' clubs have been formed. These have much advantage over the mothers' meetings; for permanent organization brings with it permanent interest. Mothers' meetings and mothers' clubs, however, have not been limited to the kindergarten; they are also found in connection with the higher grades of the school. Moreover, the idea has grown until the mothers' clubs have developed into parents' meetings and parents' clubs or parents' associations, as they are called. Fathers, as well as mothers, have become interested in the work. These associations are not compulsory, but have generally been formed at the pleasure of the school principal, either by his own personal efforts or at the suggestion of parents or citizens.

Several women's organizations have become interested in this movement, and have been of material assistance to teachers and parents in getting them together. Probably the body which has accomplished the most in this direction is the National Congress of Mothers, which has for one of its chief aims the formation of mothers' clubs and parent-teacher associations. It has a state organizer in nearly every state in the Union, and many hundreds of clubs formed under its direction are doing most commendable work. Their object is, according to Article II of the Constitution: "To bring into closer relation the home and the school; that parents and teachers may intelligently co-operate in the education of the child." Each association joins the National Congress of Mothers which provides helpful literature on subjects of interest to parents and teachers, and also offers suggestive programs and speakers.

All these methods for the social utilization of the schools are reinforced by a public opinion which is

constantly looking to the school to minister more and more to the needs of the community. This idea is embodied in the annual report of the Boston School Board for 1902, as expressed in the following passage:

This development of the uses to which the school plant may be devoted has taken place within a very short time, and has by no means reached its limit. Several buildings contain convenient and well equipped bathing facilities. The new high schoolhouses have suitable gymnasias adapted for classes in physical training, which will soon undoubtedly be used for such purposes for the benefit of those living in their respective neighborhoods. There are many other uses to which the school plant may be put for the public good. Such structures as our newer buildings are examples of may be availed of during the hours when the pupils are not in attendance, for social gatherings, and for meetings of local societies; in brief, the schoolhouse should be used by the people for such purposes as the people themselves may deem for their own benefit, and from it should radiate an atmosphere of mutual sympathy and helpfulness.

A careful study of the factors in this general movement will show that, with the exception of mothers' clubs and parents' associations, all have been recognized to a greater or less extent, as activities that should properly come under the direct control of school officials. Mothers' clubs and parents' associations on the other hand are forces embodying the co-operation of school officials and parents.

#### INCREASING THE DAY SCHOOL'S EFFICIENCY.

A community should be concerned with two great sociological problems—the education and development of the child to his greatest efficiency and the elevation

of the intellectual and social life of adults. The two institutions which have a common interest in solving these problems are the school and the home—the teacher and the parent, the citizen in general. It is obvious that the co-operative method is necessary for the best solution of the problems. Through co-operation, the teacher is able to understand the viewpoint of the parent, who in turn will learn to appreciate the motive of the teacher in performing his functions in the educational system.

Of all the ways for utilizing the school plant, the greatest importance must be attached to the co-operative force, which has fittingly been termed by the National Congress of Mothers, "parent-teacher association." This can be made the one unifying force in solving the sociological problems of every community. Not only does it represent one means for the social utilization of the schools, but a body whose functions include and comprehend all the others. By the nature of its organization, it must act as the correlating medium of all these efforts. In other words, it must take an attitude on all forms of educational endeavor, and help each to fulfill its functions. It, therefore, is concerned not only with educational extension work, but also with the problems of the day school as well. This latter function, however, is usually considered the main if not the whole concern of a parent-teacher association. This is, however, much narrower than its real scope; although if its work were limited to an active interest in the day school, it would go a long way toward solving the sociological problems of the community; for undoubtedly the day school is the greatest factor in educating and developing the child to its greatest efficiency, which is, after all, the foundation for the elevation of the intellectual and social life of

adults. But still the parent-teacher association, as the other forms of social educational endeavor, must act as the opportunist, and seize every means which will immediately benefit the community.

How can such an association increase the efficiency of the day school? First, it can establish a co-operative spirit between teacher and parent and thus help immeasurably to make this part of the educational system answer the fullest needs of the children. Both the parent and the teacher have distinct functions to perform; yet these overlap in a large measure. The teacher is charged with the intellectual, physical and moral welfare of the child five or six hours a day for forty weeks in the year. During the remainder of the time the responsibility rests with the parent.

Each has a difficult task to perform. Sometimes the parent fancies that the teacher could exert a greater influence for the child's welfare; and oftentimes the teacher attributes unsatisfactory results to the failure of the parent in performing his part of the work. The real trouble is not with the parent, the teacher, or the child, but with the way in which responsibility is divided. The remedy is co-operation of the parent and teacher.

At the present time the parent seldom comes to the school. His visits are chiefly confined to exhibition and graduation days, or to such times when a difficulty arises between the child and the teacher. This custom has brought about a lack of that co-operation necessary for the best welfare of the child; and has resulted sometimes in developing a hostile feeling between the parent and the teacher, under which circumstances neither can perform his functions to the best advantage.

The attitude of the great majority of parents is one

of indifference to the school and its problems; this comes from a lack of knowledge. From the same source springs the attitude of those parents having no particular fault to find, yet somehow think that the school is not just what it should be; and more significantly still does this lack of knowledge tend to create the body of aggrieved parents who believe that something is radically wrong. An acquaintance with the problems of the teacher would turn indifference into interest and undoubtedly change the attitude of passive and active hostility into one of sympathy with the teacher and his work. Knowledge of each other's problems is the essential means of creating a co-operative spirit between teacher and parent.

The parent-teacher association affords the greatest opportunity for imparting this knowledge to the parent and to the teacher. In fact, to study the problems of home and school is the first duty of such an association. The teacher's problems are great in number and little understood by the parent; and equally great and unappreciated is the parent's share of the work.

#### HOW PARENTS CAN HELP.

One of the essential qualifications of a good school is regular and prompt attendance. It is clear that the parent has much to do in securing this. When he is made to realize that regular attendance is necessary for the child if he is to progress regularly, and further when he is made to appreciate how irregularity on the part of any member of the school causes delay and loss to the class as a whole, he is willing many times to waive his personal reasons for keeping the child from school.

Home work under the guidance of the teacher can be made one of the most far-reaching influences of the



school if the parent is in sympathy with it. The teacher, however, must be the controlling factor, and nowhere does he find a greater opportunity to display his skill. Home work means something broader than the study of home lessons. It means rather the direction of the child's activities in general by the teacher outside of school. He can, for example, with the aid of the parent, direct the child's reading. To stimulate the child to make gardens is one of the greatest opportunities of the teacher.

The child can also continue his manual training in the home. He can make things to bring to school for the general good. The parent can make effective the sewing and cooking instruction given in school by encouraging the girls to cook for the home and to make useful articles, either for the family or for their own personal wear. The home might be the practical workshop for the cooking and sewing teacher; and the ordinary parent would be quite willing to help to make it so.

It almost wholly rests with the parent to send the child to school clean. The teacher feels keenly the detrimental effect of soiled and torn clothing and an unkempt body; and for the good of the child and for the common good of the school, he teaches, more or less tactfully, the virtue of being clean. Actual washing is sometimes necessary and the school bath comes into good use. If the parent could be made to see, and experience has proved that he can, the physical dangers of being unclean, the school bath would be much less necessary for actual cleaning, although it would always be a healthful adjunct to the school plant for those children who have no adequate facilities for thorough bathing at home.

Almost innumerable are the ways in which the

parent can co-operate with the teacher in the moral development of the child. Street company, promiscuous theatre-going, an unhealthy home atmosphere, factors that are almost under the entire control of the parent, many times completely offset the teacher's efforts in moral training. The teacher can never hope to obliterate the evil results attending these conditions without the help of the parent, who must undoubtedly take the initiative.

The question of truancy is a matter that concerns equally the parent and teacher. Each must study the child. It is surprising how quickly a troublesome affair will sometimes be cleared up after a conference with the parent. The special classes for unruly pupils, which are beginning to be started, can only attain the best results when the parent is in sympathy with their aims.

Probably none of the problems of the teacher appeal more naturally and directly to the parent than those which come under moral training. Every parent, even though he is not good himself, wants his child to be good; but he is usually unable to analyze the influences that keep the child from being good. These have to be pointed out to him, and in no other case will the teacher find such a responsive chord.

Contrasted with the moral training of the child whose meaning the parent can understand by instinct, is the physical development which is based on scientific principles, which are rarely understood by the parent. A strong body nurtured in a moral atmosphere is imperative if the child is to receive the greatest benefit from the school; and no one is more responsible for the physical condition of the child than the parent. The teacher's work in this direction depends, in a large measure, upon the efficiency of the parent in perform-

ing his functions. It is almost useless to present arithmetic, geography, or history to a tired or hungry child; to one whose senses are dulled by cigarette smoking; to one who sees or hears indistinctly; or to a child who is actually sick. Many parents do not realize the value of a fresh, clear mind in the schoolroom, which is dependent upon proper sleep and proper and sufficient food. Many are not waked up to the baneful results of the nicotine habit, or to the necessity of caring for children's ailments. Few parents, however, fail to respond when the teacher explains how these factors affect the child's school work. The parents need only to understand; it is rare that we find one who does not want his child to get along. He wants the best results, but does not know how to secure them. He needs information.

#### MEDICAL INSPECTION AND THE PARENTS' OBLIGATION.

The failure of parents to detect and care for the ailments of their children has brought about the movement for medical inspection in the schools. It originated in an effort to protect the public from the spread of contagious diseases, although it is now beginning to look at the matter from the standpoint of the child's welfare. Where medical inspection has been introduced, the teacher must be alert in selecting those children whom he thinks are sources of danger in spreading disease and also in detecting physical ailments which render the child unable to make full use of his school opportunities. The teacher has thus been obliged to assume responsibilities heretofore left to the parent. This does not, however, relieve the parent from all responsibility. If anything, it increases his obligations. In the past he sent the child to school irresponsibly, ignorantly taking chances of his coming

down with some disease, or of going through school with physical infirmities which obstructed his development. With medical inspection, where the parent knows that his child will be submitted to physical examination, he feels under obligation to scrutinize him before going to school, for he is obliged to receive the child back again if he is pronounced physically unsound. Where before he was under the state's control only in infectious and contagious diseases, he is now responsible for other ailments. Medical inspection, therefore, cannot become really efficient without the parent's co-operation. He must be made to understand the meaning of these ailments; and in proportion as he understands them, he will conform to instructions. The campaign for medical inspection, then, must include a campaign for the instruction of parents.

The Massachusetts Civic League, in its agitation for medical inspection, has seen its bill, introduced into the last legislature, become a law. Emphasizing the importance of making the measure effective, the league urges the citizens to interest their local school committee so "that it may not only cause the required inspection of sight and hearing to be made, but may have it made as carefully and effectively as possible." Further it points out that

"Work will have to be done to secure the appropriation for carrying out that part of the bill which requires a doctor's visit to each child who seems in ill health."

It is expressly stated in the bill that the appropriation must precede any expenditure. The league states that citizens should be interested not only to carry through the appropriation, but

"in order that parents may appreciate the importance of acting upon the notices in regard to their children's health which they will receive as a result of the inspection provided for in the bill."

Obviously the parent is the greatest factor in bringing about these conditions and he, therefore, needs information on the subject. If he realizes, as the makers of this bill realize, the value to himself and to the community of developing physically sound children, he will become the stoutest advocate of medical inspection in the schools; and will not only demand thorough inspection by the teachers and school physicians, but will work vigorously for a sufficient appropriation to start and carry on the work.

It is true that in some instances where this system is used, the parents have ignored the notices which the children have brought home. They have done this, not because they have not wanted their children to be in good health, but because they have not had sufficient faith in the opinion of the school physician to heed his instructions. Many times the excuse is made that the parent cannot afford to seek medical advice, and often this is the case. However, if the parent really believes, as the physician does, that the child's symptoms are serious, he would find a way to minister to the child's need as he would in the case of a contagious disease which the state compels him to care for. Knowledge, then, on the part of the parent, is the underlying principle governing successful medical inspection.

The school nurse is a potent means of giving the parent medical instruction. An illustration of the willingness on the part of the parent to co-operate when he understands the meaning of things, is the way in which the nurse is invariably received in the home. Her methods are simple and easily understood and this is the secret of the gratifying response from the parent.

Besides the physical defects which the school physician refers to the parent, medical inspection will dis-

cover mental weaknesses, sufficiently marked to call for special consideration. In these cases the parent can materially aid the school physician and the teacher in deciding on the best method to be adopted for the child.

Besides all these problems in which the parent can co-operate with the teacher, there are others concerning the course of study. As is the case with the other problems, knowledge is the remedy. Every parent should understand the aims of each study and its relation to the general scheme; and this knowledge can be given so that every parent can understand. Parents are always interested in the study of the education which their children are receiving, and when they understand it, invariably become loyal supporters of the teacher and the school.

These, then, are some of the problems which the parent must become acquainted with in order to work in a co-operative spirit with the teacher, who on the other hand must know the conditions under which the parent works.

The parent-teacher association, composed jointly of parents and teachers, united for the avowed object of studying each other's problems, with a view to using this knowledge for the best interests of the child, is certainly the most effective means of bringing about all this co-operation. It is, therefore, eminently adapted to help the day school to fulfill all its functions, and, consequently, to aid in the solution of the first great sociological problem in every community, namely,—the education and development of the child to his greatest efficiency.

It can equally aid in the solution of the second problem, namely,—the elevation of the intellectual and social life of adults. Consistent with this aim, it must



take an attitude toward the evening school. The school committee can offer this educational opportunity, but it cannot make it effective, unless the people partake of it. The greatest service here which the parent-teacher association can give, is to point out the value of this opportunity; show the people their needs, and create in them a desire for an education. This opportunity for systematic evening instruction is becoming more and more general throughout the country, and will be offered to a greater extent as the people desire it. The parent-teacher association can show the people why they should desire it.

Such an organization can be the main prop of the playground, vacation-school, and school garden. Being a co-operative force of parent and teacher it can, more than anything else, point out the exceptional benefits of these rare educational opportunities.

The evening lecture system and the educational center with its great possibilities, will extend as the people feel the need of such instruction.

#### WORK OF THE BOSTON ASSOCIATIONS.

The parent-teacher associations, which perhaps come nearer than any others to the general idea of bringing school and community together, are those in Boston, which were established by the conference committee on moral education. The first was organized in May, 1905, the second last November, and the other two later in the year. The pioneer, the Sherwin-Hyde Parents' Association, has just issued its annual report, giving an account of its activities during the year, which coincide to a great extent with the real aims of a parent-teacher association.

"Its aims," says the annual report, "are three-fold; to bring the home and the school together; to instruct

the parents concerning the care of their children; and to promote the social interests of the neighborhood. To accomplish the first object, efforts have been made to acquaint the parent with the teacher's work in developing the child intellectually, physically, and morally; and on the other hand, to explain to the teacher the problems with which the parent has to deal. This has been brought about through talks, given by teachers and parents at the monthly meetings of the association, and by means of teas, held after every meeting where parents and teachers come together in a social way for interchange of thoughts."

These talks, which the report goes on to describe, seem remarkably comprehensive and pointed. Among those given by the teachers were brief explanation of the course of study and the aims of the teacher in physical and moral training, with particular emphasis on the necessity of co-operation between teachers and parents. Other topics were: *Specific Instances in Which the Parent Can Co-operate with the Teacher; Cleanliness in the Schoolroom; How Children Spend Their Evenings, and Cigarette Smoking Among School Children.*

Among the subjects presented by the parents were: Fighting among boys, gambling, cigarette smoking, novel reading, theatre-going, spending pennies for cheap candy, playing in the street, etc. In consequence of some of these talks, a committee was appointed to find out what evening opportunities in the neighborhood for amusement or education were open to boys and girls. At a subsequent meeting this committee reported and recommended that the teachers inform their pupils of the places where they might go for healthful amusement and instruction.

At another meeting, one of the mothers spoke of the

filthy condition of some of the streets, yards, and vacant lots in the neighborhood, declaring "that dirt and disorder lower the morals of the children;" and a committee was subsequently appointed to make an investigation, and to recommend improvements. "Through these talks," the report says, "the parents have become more familiar with the teacher's problems, and the teacher has learned to interpret the child from the parent's point of view."

#### INSTRUCTING THE FATHERS AND MOTHERS.

Not only, however, have these meetings brought the home and school into happy co-operation, but they have also fulfilled the second object of this association, namely,—“to instruct the parents concerning the care of their children.” The main address at each meeting was devoted to such instruction. During the year, there were five lectures on the physical development of the child and two on the moral welfare. Three of these on the physical development were given by the medical inspector of the district, Dr. Arthur W. Fairbanks. These lectures have proved an efficient agency for giving medical instruction to the parents. That they have helped the medical inspector in the performance of his duties, thereby making inspection a live issue in this community, is proved by the personal testimony of Dr. Fairbanks, who says that parents' associations have been of material assistance to medical inspection in the schools.

The Sherwin-Hyde Association has proved not only an adequate means of bringing the home and the school together and instructing the parents, but it has also fulfilled its third object, namely,—“to promote the social interests of the neighborhood.” There is an active cigarette committee, with a member from each section

of the district, "who," says the report, "feels responsible for her section, watches the boys who smoke, and finds out if possible where they obtain the cigarettes." The committee on yards and vacant lots, similar to the cigarette committee, has a member from each section of the district.

A very interesting evening meeting was arranged by the Bowditch Association last March, at which time an address was given by a public man of the neighborhood, who spoke suggestively, and inspiringly on *The Responsibility of Fathers*. Every seat in the hall was taken, and it was estimated that half of the audience was men.

One of the most practical lectures which has been given so far in these associations is the demonstration talk by Mrs. Florence Bliss, of Worcester, Mass., on *How to Take Care of a Child Sick With the Measles*. Mrs. Bliss nursed her patient, whom she had brought with her, through an assumed case of the measles. She treated the eyes and ears, made a flax-seed poultice, wrung out hot applications, and put on a pneumonia jacket. Before putting her little patient to bed, she showed the audience how to make a bed, and called attention to the kind of cooking and nursing utensils which should be used in the home, illustrating her talk with the articles before her. Incidentally, she gave many practical suggestions about neatness in the home and the care of children in other cases than the measles. A similar lecture was given in the West End Association by the school nurse of the district who brought to the school two of her children in the neighborhood whom she was treating. She doctored one for measles and treated the other for a genuine eye and ear trouble.

The enthusiasm in all these associations is gratifying. "Why haven't we had them before?" is constant-

ly being asked. The mothers are glad to assume much of the responsibility in carrying on the work, and take a great deal of pride in making the teas pretty and attractive. Too much cannot be said of the value of the teas. Here, everybody is expected to speak to everybody else, and over a cup of tea, which seems to have a magic charm for producing cordiality and geniality, the teachers and parents mingle; grievances vanish, and many a hard boy or girl has been converted into a helpful, conscientious pupil as a result of a friendly chat at one of these teas.

"I didn't know that teachers could talk and laugh like other people," said a mother one afternoon. During the tea, one is constantly hearing, "How is Mary getting along?" "How is Johnny getting along?" Or, "I want to tell you about my boy; he is very nervous." Very often the teacher has to tell the mother that Mary or Johnny is not getting on at all well. But does the mother get provoked? No. For a moment, she straightens up, looks sober, but surrounded by all this geniality, her face gradually relaxes, as the teacher, also under the same influence, tells about the child, winding up with, "There is no reason why Johnny can't be my best boy," to which the mother responds with a bright smile, "I'll see that he is your best boy." And the best of it all is Johnny does make marked improvement. One mother said to a teacher one afternoon, "I don't blame you for sending Annie home. She must trouble you awfully, but you know she is dreadfully nervous, and the doctor has told me to keep her out of school." The teacher acknowledged afterwards that she had always thought the child was vicious.

The tea, however, is not the only attraction; and this is plainly proved by the earnest, interested faces

of the mothers who come month after month to listen to the words of advice and warning and encouragement; and by the timid eagerness with which they question the speaker on some subject which they are anxious to have explained further. On the days when the medical inspector gave his talks at the Sherwin-Hyde Association, it was almost pathetic to see the mothers, who had brought their children with them for the doctor to examine, crowd round him during the tea, and ask him what they should do for this or that trouble.

The whole result of this work in Boston seems to demonstrate conclusively that these organizations supply a real need in the educational system.\* What these associations have done in their own localities, indicates what similar organizations may do for the other school districts. Being a part of the general movement for the social utilization of the schools, and having a definite, distinct function to perform in this movement, they should not spring up by chance; nor should their activities be left to the accidental enthusiasm of a teacher or parent. The underlying principles of every parent-teacher association should be alike; they should aim to elevate the intellectual and social life of the community. It is evident, of course, that the specific problems of each association will be peculiar to the district in which it has been formed. What would elevate one neighborhood might have no application whatever to another. It suggests itself, therefore, that there should be some recognized authority in every city to organize and guide parent-teacher associations. Logically, every school district of the city should be represented in such an organization, which shall deal with the intellectual and social problems peculiar to the district.



Since these associations are so intimately connected with the school system, they would most naturally come under the direction of the school committee, which is the guiding force in all the other forms of educational endeavor. The school committee should use its good offices to create among the parents and teachers of a school district a sentiment in favor of establishing a forum for the exchange of ideas on the intellectual and social development of the district. And further they should provide the facilities for the consummation of the plan. Schoolhouses should be placed at the disposal of parent-teacher associations; lecture service should be provided out of the school funds and such printed matter as constitution and by-laws, invitations to meetings and annual reports, should be issued by the school committee at the request of the association. There are many other ways in which a school committee can further such organizations—by furnishing the facilities for the tea, or the paraphernalia for an entertainment—without assuming a controlling attitude. The parent-teacher association would become a pre-eminently democratic institution—an organizer of enlightened public opinion on all educational matters. The combined force of all these associations in a city would constitute an educational support, invaluable to a body chosen by the people to watch over and direct their educational interests.

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## WHAT CAN PARENTS' ASSOCIATIONS ACCOMPLISH?

MRS. FRANCES SHELDON BOLTON,  
PRESIDENT, CONNECTICUT MOTHERS' CONGRESS.  
NEW HAVEN.

We of the Connecticut Congress of Mothers are deeply interested in doing all that is within our power to bring the mothers and teachers of our state closer together.

We are most desirous of bridging this chasm that has seemed to exist between the home and the school. We believe that this must be done before the best for the child is accomplished. No matter how conscientious a teacher may be in her work, if the mother knows or cares nothing about the teacher or her work, what will be the result? Almost nothing; certainly nothing when compared with what might have been the result if they had worked together.

In this problem of the child, each mother needs to know the teacher of her child intimately and the teacher needs the mother. Is there any way that is so quick and easy for the teachers and mothers to become acquainted as to be in the same club and to meet regularly together to talk over this vitally important subject of the child? In Connecticut we are just beginning this work. The Connecticut Congress of Mothers has met with a hearty response from those teachers we have consulted concerning this necessary co-operation. Many of the teachers are realizing that to get the very best results from the children they must know the child's parents. But how can this be done? The Connecticut Congress of Mothers believe

that through organization the quickest and best work can be accomplished. Then again the teachers are learning that the "organized" mother is not the fussy mother. She does not go to the schools with a disagreeable spirit or with unjust criticism of the teacher's work, but rather with a spirit and a desire to help the teacher. The mother can help the teachers in a way no one else can. How else can the teacher know of the conditions which have surrounded the child from its birth up to the present time? The more the teacher knows about these things the easier her task of trying to assist her pupils to do and be the best of which they are capable. If only the mothers had had the advantages of a thorough training in child study, or at least have had as much of a training as you receive in the average Normal Training School, how much faster this work of uniting school and home would progress. There are two ways of forming these societies or clubs. The first way is for one or more interested women to ask of the Board of Education, Superintendent and Principals the privilege of using the school room for the purpose of holding parents-teachers meetings. Then after that has been granted, to notify the parents of these meetings, the mothers in each case taking the initiative. The second method is the one we have tried here in Connecticut—that is, to first interest the teachers. They, having had some training in child-study, are realizing the good that might result from such meetings well conducted on broad and liberal lines. After the superintendent and teachers have become interested enough to take the initiatory in this work and invite the mothers to a meeting in one of the school rooms after the regular session of the school, the teachers have many times been surprised at the hearty response that comes from the

mothers. Then, at the first meeting, form a Parents-Teachers' Club.

I firmly believe in a permanent organization. It is so easy to put off work, and unless you have stated times for your meetings you will not have so valuable a session or so many of them. Both things are vitally important to this work. The teachers have long felt the need of conferring with each other, and consequently you are here meeting for the seventy-sixth time.

The mothers have been exceedingly slow in recognizing the benefits that might come to them through a formal organization.

Ten years ago the National Congress of Mothers was formed and it has grown until now we have friends, if not state organizations, in every state in the Union. I feel that we have wasted much valuable time, because if our grandmothers and greatgrandmothers had only, when they first began to hold mothers' meetings, been organized, we might be getting ready to celebrate our one hundredth anniversary, as the first Mothers' Club began holding its meetings in Portland, Maine, in 1815.

The Connecticut Congress of Mothers believes that this union of school and home is one of the ways to help in the advancement of the moral and social conditions in our state. In times past there has seemed to be a more or less silent conflict going on between the mothers and teachers, which is most detrimental to the best interests of the child. It seems to me it will be ever thus until the training the mothers receive shall more nearly compare with the teachers' training. Even now the mothers can help the teachers and the teachers can be of great assistance to the mothers if only this spirit of hostility can be superseded by a

desire on the part of each to help the other. The mother and the teacher must work together, whether they desire to or not, and let us so work to obtain the best results. One of the most effectual means of bringing about this union, it seems to me, is through organization. At these meetings we mean to have music, recitations and one principal address, after which we try to have as general a discussion of the subject presented as we can. After this, light refreshments are passed, and many confidences are exchanged that would never have been made known in any more formal way. One of the best and most effectual ways of bringing about this desired harmony among our mothers and teachers is to have them discuss the needs of the child. Because we do believe that each side does sincerely desire that the best for the child shall prevail, and the only difference is in the methods,—this is why we so much desire to form these teachers-parents' clubs around each school house in our state. Until this is accomplished the Connecticut Congress of Mothers has work still to do.

Emerson has said that "Childhood is a perpetual Messiah ever coming into the lives of men and beckoning them toward Paradise." Can any work that we do for these same children that Emerson says are doing so much for us, be called unimportant? Is it not, rather, work to which we should give of our very highest and best?

## Department of Civic and Moral Training.

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### MORAL EDUCATION AS ILLUMINATED BY HERBART.

PROF. WALTER BALLOU JACOBS,  
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We are living in a period of increasing moral sensitiveness. The old Puritan conscience after all is not dead, but very much alive. Our former self-complacency as a people has deserted us. Once we were sure that our schools were the best in the world; our government the only free government in the world; our people the most morally true of all the peoples of the world. In comparison with us all the rest of the world was gentile and barbarian. Now we are not so sure about it.

We have at least reached this stage in our progress towards righteousness that we are in a state of eagerness to help our fellow citizens be pure and ethically true, even if we are not so ourselves. We have been appalled at the evidences of venality and graft in those whom we thought most trustworthy. We have found the slime of the vipers of dishonesty and corruption even where we thought altars of righteousness stood, and we, the plain people of the land, have set about to do much house cleaning and much washing of dirty linen. This has necessitated much self-examination and many new resolutions in every field of life. Our optimism has not, however, deserted us. With childish satisfaction we point to the foul water



with which we have done the cleaning and cry with swelling pride: "See how clean I must be!" While all Europe is saying: "What a dirty fellow he is!"

Every cloud has a silver lining, so the proverb goes. The American people are unanimous in finding cleanliness at the bottom of every hand basin of dirty water. The hopeful part is to be found not in our self-complacency and optimism, but in the eagerness with which we seek more linen to be washed. We are, indeed, in the condition of the good housewife, who, having cleaned one room, finds it doubly necessary to clean the rest.

Next to the church the school is more sensitive to feelings of right and wrong than is any other part of the community. So we, the school teachers, with whom conventions and teachers' meetings are a passion, come together and discuss moral education. It has in the past year been the topic of nearly every teachers' meeting from Maine to California. What formerly seemed dry and uninteresting, mere formalism, a series of cant phrases, a time for dreamy attention until the speaker finished his discourse, has now become a thing of living, vital interest. We really want to know what true morality is; what everybody has to say about it; and how it can be produced in our schools. Of course, we have always said that moral education was important. Then straightway we forgot it, and to teach school meant little more than to prepare for semi-annual promotions. Now we are more and more demanding of ourselves that we make our living square with our thinking. If we are to do this, first of all we must think straight. What is straight thinking about morality, and in particular about moral education?

It is common to think of Herbart's great contribution to the theory of education as summed up in the

word apperception, and indeed there have been few contributions of equal value.

Pestalozzi believed that he had found the great secret of education in sense-perception. Object lessons as a center for language lessons (and number work) became the important part of all elementary instruction. Herbart seized upon this truth of Pestalozzi but did not stop at the surface and proceeded to analyze the act of sense perception itself, and disclosed the act of apperception as fundamental, not only in sense perception, but in all mind growth. This revelation of the nature of mind, by which the new is always grasped by the old and interpreted by it, is the most important item which he has given to education. The schools are with more and more success founding their work upon the principles of apperception.

It is often overlooked that this is only a part, and not the chief part, of the advance which Herbart made upon Pestalozzi. Pestalozzi had looked upon instruction as a means of revealing the physical world to the child. Herbart rose to a far higher conception and made the chief end of education, not the revelation of the physical world, but the revelation of the moral world. To him the world was through and through moral, and this is the first lesson in moral education which we may learn from Herbart. The world is through and through moral. Everywhere the moral predominates over the physical. Everywhere the teacher must discover the moral as superior to the physical and disclose it to the pupil. We are just passing out of the ragged edge of an era of materialism. The real world has appeared to many to be a world of dead matter from which all came and to which all returned. Spirit is to such an age merely an incident, an unessential, a chance fortuitous product of evolution; but this very doctrine of evolution which

seemed to preach materialism, when carried to its logical result by its own devotees, is bringing back spirit. It is telling us that all matter is very much alive and that its activity is purposeful. It is substituting for the physical world a spiritual world, a moral world. Today, then, the world is ready to understand this thought of Herbart, that the real world is the moral world, and that the chief end of education is to reveal this world to the pupil.

With Plato we hold that beauty, truth and the good are identical. There is morality wherever there is truth. There is morality wherever there is beauty. This presents more or less of an enigma when we try to apply it to our every-day work. There is truth in the spelling lesson, or at least sometimes there is, but can we by any means say that to learn to spell is a part of morality? There is certainly accuracy and truth in the lesson in arithmetic, in the lesson in algebra; but can we by any manner of means say that we are teaching morals when we are teaching arithmetic or algebra? To this Herbart answers an unconditional yes. If we are not teaching morals then it is our own fault, and not the fault of our opportunity. We are too inclined to make moral education a part of education and not the whole of education. We divide our life into two parts, a moral and a non-moral. When we do this it ceases to be life and we have only a logical distinction. In this matter Herbart gives no uncertain response. These are his words: "The one and the whole work of education may be summed up in the concept, morality."

There is for Herbart, then, not several things which may be the aims of education; but only the one—morality. We shall teach truth because that is morality. We shall teach beauty because that is morality. We shall not truly teach either beauty or truth

unless we teach it as morality; as an expression of the great all-moral moral.

The second thing which we are to learn from Herbart is that there is one end or aim in education and not several. There is not a physical aim which has any meaning at all, except as it is a part of the moral aim. There are not two aims, an intellectual and a moral, but the intellectual is only a way of attaining the moral. The teacher in teaching the lesson in history must have hovering before him the moral aim. History must not be a mere record of facts. That is the treasure of a pedant; but it must be a revelation of the moral world; it must be the inculcation of ideals which shall be a guide and an inspiration to life. The lesson in literature must not be for information or even beauty alone, but for its power to inspire and mould the life of the pupil. Arithmetic in the same way must have its part in the great moral scheme. Of course, mathematics teaches accurate thinking, honest thinking, but this is not all. Arithmetic is a means to accomplishing an end. Its great service is that it makes it possible for man to conquer nature and subdue it, to make it do his will. It must be forever in the mind of the child as a means to justice, a means to power which shall be used for ethical ends. All mathematics is mysterious and leads to devout reverence for the wonders of its nature. It has charmed into reverence some of the greatest thinkers of the world. Pythagoras found in the mysterious relations of numbers one to the other and to themselves, a mystery which to him was divine and to be worshipped. Plato in his old age became more and more a worshipper of the mystery of numbers; but this is not the sense in which to Herbart arithmetic may be a means of ethical instruction. It is in so having the knowledge and the power given by arithmetic related

to other things in the mind of the child that he can only think of them as a means to securing high ideals and noble purposes. It is not the mere fact which it is the duty of the teacher to teach, but its proper relation to other facts. Arithmetic is to be taught as a means of service to others and not as a means of selfish gratification, a means of mere selfish money-getting. Hence mathematics must be taught as a means of unraveling the mystery of civilization, as a means of understanding how trade may be conducted as a benefit to both buyer and seller. Mathematics must, in order to be educative instruction, have the breath of human life put into it. It must in truth become one of the humanities, a place which it has long claimed for itself. It must not be dry and non-human, but a living part of a vital life.

In the same way language and grammar give knowledge which may be used to persuade men. It can be used by the demagogue to persuade men to selfish gratification, or it may be used by the patriot to defend and build up the solidarity of the state. If our instruction is to be educative instruction, the teacher must not leave these facts to fall together in the mind as they may, by chance, but every fact, every truth of spelling, of grammar, and of writing must fall into its true place as a means to a noble end.

There are, then, two chief ways in which instruction in all studies may be educative instruction, that is, character-making instruction. First, it may create noble ideals, not ideals to be treasured in secret and kept hidden in thought, but ideals which shall be living, burning, ready to spring into action; and second, it may arrange all knowledge in such a way in the mind that its true use and true value shall be plain to the pupil and its right use assured. It is in this last that the schools more commonly fail. They fail to

follow up what they have taught and to assure that it will have the true place in the life of the child. They leave this last to chance or accident. They have not the faith to say that it can be done. In a similar way the schools fail in the first. They teach noble ideals, but they fail to make sure that these noble ideals will go forth into action. Here is where their instruction fails to be educative instruction.

But are we not attempting the impossible? Is it after all possible to so teach that moral character shall result? Or is it a matter of chance whether a man becomes good or bad? Is it the work of the teacher if the pupil becomes bad or is it the result of chance? Is it to the credit of the teacher if the pupil becomes true and noble, or is it a mere accident? Can men be made smart and sharp, but not good or bad, with any surety? This question we answer to a degree unconsciously when we give to the teacher honor for a great and good life—but we do not go as far as the Chinese, if we may credit the word of Professor John Adams. Is education such a process that the teacher can be held responsible for the results? To this question Herbart gives an unqualified yes, in reply. If the teacher imparts the right knowledge and arranges that knowledge in the mind in its true relations, then "infallibly" true character will result. Infallibly, that is the word of Herbart. The pupil is morally what the teacher makes him. Education is a man-making process.

This requires further explanation from Herbart. Let us hear his way of looking at the mind and its mode of action.

All moral acts are acts consciously done. That which we do unwittingly by accident is not moral. It is non-moral. If I walk in my sleep, the sleep-walking is not an act for which I am morally responsible. It



is not an expression of my character. The only acts which have moral character are those which I do intentionally. They are acts which I see imaged in my mind as done before they are done and perhaps before they are begun. That is to say, every act which has moral value springs from thoughts already in the mind. Moral action is a function of thought. We can only act morally by having the act in the mind before we execute it. If we can control the thought in the pupil's mind we can control the act which springs from the thought. If all moral action springs from the circle of thought, if we would control action we must control the circle of thought. This, indeed, is just what the teacher should be doing in the process of instruction. If the process by which the circle of thought is built as it should be built, there will be no dead useless knowledge, but all will be full of life and quivering with readiness for action. The learning of the pedant is not a part of himself. It is like a false leg or a false eye. In reality it has no part in the man. It does not have a part in the circle of thought from which action springs. It is not the circle of thought, but only conceals the real circle of thought which is hidden behind and kept out of the view of the teacher. If thoughts are living thoughts and are built into the mind of the pupil in the right way, then as the circles of thought control the acts, the man cannot fail to see the right, to have true purposes and so to do the right.

Herbart was not the first by any means to hold this view. This is the view of morality which Socrates held and made famous. Men are bad because they are ignorant. Make them see the truth and the right and they cannot fail to do it. This is only another way of saying just what Herbart has said. If the circle of thought is true, if it contains true thoughts

and thoughts arranged in the right sequence of relations and values, then the acts which spring from those thoughts must be right acts. Our acts are wrong because our thoughts are wrong. Purify the thoughts and the acts cannot fail to be pure. Now the soul does not spontaneously give birth to thoughts. All its thoughts come to the soul from without, from its environment of men and of inanimate things. It is the duty of the educator to control this environment; and this is just what the teacher is trying to do. He forms a more or less artificial environment consisting of the various studies and the conditions and circumstances of the school. Through this—shall we say condensed environment?—he hopes to control and enrich the circle of thought of the pupil.

The circle of thoughts must be so arranged that it shall act as a unit, and not now act in one part and again in another part. This is the way in which a man acts and then repents. First one part of his circle of thought acts and then another part. He is divided against himself. Now it is the duty of the teacher to see first that there are right thoughts; second, that they have right values and relations in the mind, and third, that they are amalgamated into an organic whole, or unity.

We have, then, learned several lessons from Herbart on this great question of moral education.

1. The world is through and through moral and the vision of it the teacher must reveal to the pupil.

2. There is one aim for education and not several, and that one end or aim is morality.

3. This great aim can be *infallibly* secured if the teacher uses the right means.

4. The right road for the attainment of morality is through the circle of thought.

But character has for its very essence action and

not thought alone. The mere day-dreamer has no character, however glorious in the sunset glow may be the castles in Spain which he builds. The pupils must be trained to act and this training must come through action itself. And in this action self-control, self-restraint, form an essential part. This is secured for the pupil through discipline. Government and discipline thus become important means to the formation of character in the pupil. One of the finest contributions to the theory of education is to be found in Herbart's distinction between government and discipline. The same means may be used in both. The distinction is in the mind of the teacher and in the results in the life of the pupil.

Government is the process by which order is secured so that the other activities of education may proceed to the best advantage. Government looks to the present and is merely temporary in character. It is like the scaffolding of a building which is to be removed when the building is completed.

Discipline has to do with the formation of character. It looks to the future and its results are the permanent character of the pupil.

Government is the function of the police force. They keep order so that the other activities of civilized society may proceed without interruption and to the best advantage. The courts have a similar function in ending disputes between individuals, so that life may be done without friction and may be most fruitful in its activities. Occasionally the police and the courts go beyond this function, as in the juvenile police courts, which have done much good in the recent past, work which does not look so much to the present as to the future, but in general the police and the courts are quite closely confined to this field of activity, which Herbart called Government—the

keeping of good order. The part of discipline in society is taken by the school and the church. They regard not simply the present, but more the future. Their work looks towards that which is permanent and will abide, rather than to that which is but for today.

The teacher has these two duties to perform besides the work of teaching proper; the keeping of order and the training of the will to form firm character. Many of us fail to see this distinction or to keep it firmly in mind. Do you remember that old rule in Latin grammar? Verbs of teaching govern two accusatives, one of the person and the other of the thing; as, *Magister Johannem Latinam docuit*—the master taught John Latin. The verb to teach always has two objects, one to control the present and one to control the future,—one the work of government and one the work of discipline. The object of government is regarded as a thing to be manipulated and handled with the least friction and in the easiest way possible. The object of discipline is regarded as a person, a living individual, ourselves. Both of these views must be continually in the mind of the teacher. The verb to teach takes two objects, one of the person and the other of the thing.

To some, government is the only thing thought of—discipline will take care of itself. The superintendent cannot measure discipline, while he can tell the degree of government in a room at a glance. Some few forget the importance of government and think only of discipline. Their work has a ragged, unsatisfactory appearance to the outsider, and to the pupil himself, as he thinks about it afterwards in later life. The true teacher will not be neglectful of either. While he recognizes the higher function of discipline as looking to that which is permanent, he

will not forget the great importance of government, which makes possible the work of instruction and discipline alike.

The teacher who sees this distinction between government and discipline, and keeps it clearly in mind, has made a great step forward in wisdom and in tactful management of his pupils.

Let us repeat: There are, then, three points which sum up Herbart's contribution to the theory of moral education.

1. Education has for its chief function the revelation of the moral world, and not the revelation of the world of physical things.

2. There is but one thing to be sought in education, and that is summed up in the idea of morality.

3. This end can be infallibly attained if the right means are employed.

4. As all action depends upon the circle of thought, if this is properly formed, right action must be inevitably the outcome. This circle of thought the teacher is continually forming in the process of instruction, no matter what subject is being taught. The great problem is to form the circle of thought aright.

5. Character is made permanent and solidified by discipline, and the whole work of education is fostered by government, which should continually decrease in amount as character becomes firmly established.

Is Herbart right in this analysis of moral education? In the main, Yes. But he failed to see one thing clearly, which we see more distinctly because of the advance in science, particularly in biology and psychology, since his day. Our conscious life is not so thoroughly rational and dependent upon conscious thought as Herbart and Socrates believed. How many times do we act from instinct or spontaneously, and then rationalize our acts afterwards by explaining

them to ourselves and sometimes to others. Thought follows rather than precedes action in many cases. It is the man of character whose acts are always under the control of his circle of thought. When character is being formed, impulses, instincts and passions, which come to us by inheritance and which appear suddenly out of the dim obscurity of the shadows of the mind, play a much greater part in our lives than we are wont to think. To control the circle of thought is not to control action in any such complete way as Herbart thought. The problem is even more complicated than it appeared to Herbart. He has grasped only part of the problem, though by far the greater part.

We are not given thoughts at birth, but we are born with a vast richness of instincts and passions which must be fostered or inhabited until habit comes to the support of the intellect in controlling conduct. Education must do more than deal with the circle of thought. It must deal with these restless tendencies to act which are born with us. In our schools we have not over-emphasized intellect, but we have neglected the training of instinct. We have looked upon instinct as low-born, while thought, Minerva-like, springs from the brain of Jove himself.

Yet we ought not to despair. The new facts of science which have revealed to us the great complexity of human action have also revealed the means of meeting the more complex problem which they have disclosed, and in the main we are convinced that moral character is built upon the circle of thought, and we know that moral character is the one aim which we must seek to realize.

The great lack of our educational system today is the lack of a consistent system of philosophy. Philosophy is only another name for seeing things in the



large and not seeing them as isolated parts. We are, as teachers, shut in within the narrow walls of our schoolrooms and we see the part and not the whole. This term's work, today's lessons, these seem to us wholes and not parts. In our faithful devotion to our work we are absorbed in it, and forget that it is only a part of a greater whole, and that we cannot do this little part aright unless we see it in the light of all the rest, as a part of a whole, God's great whole. The eye becomes near-sighted when it is bent continually upon its work. We need, the oculist tells us, often to lift our eyes and gaze out upon the broad and distant horizon. So the teacher becomes near-sighted in his work; sees parts instead of wholes. He needs often to lift his eyes to see the wholes of which his today's work is but a part. To do this he must be a student of philosophy, for philosophy is seeing things as wholes. The study of such a philosophy as that of Herbart is profitable, not as pedantic knowledge, but as habituating us to see things as wholes and not as parts. As such a help to the teacher the writings of Herbart are of great value.

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## EDUCATION FOR CIVIC RIGHTEOUSNESS

HORATIO B. KNOX.

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Morality is one. In this discussion, therefore, we are faced with the old question of whether morality can be taught. The Greeks believed it could, and Plato has left a lively description of the method of training for citizenship in Athens, where, at the

earliest possible age, boys were taught that "this was just, and that was unjust; this was honorable, that was dishonorable; this was holy, that was unholy; do this, and don't do that. If obedience was rendered, then well and good; if not, the boys were straightened by threats and blows, like a piece of warped wood."

When goodness in action had been thus secured through habituation, "well being" was attained through the study of poetry, drill in music, the practice of gymnastics, and the steady contemplation of the careers of great men. "Now," says Plato, "when all this care is taken about virtue, public and private, why, Socrates, do you still wonder and doubt whether virtue can be taught?"

But Socrates did doubt, and was undoubtedly right in objecting to the Platonic scheme, so far as it was an education of mere admonition and precept, injunction and prohibition. Socrates, on the other hand, believed that "knowledge was virtue," since one must needs follow the noblest when he sees it, and since the human soul, once having gazed upon the very face of truth, could never go astray.

Both men were wrong to just the extent that they failed to recognize that, so far as men are not moral jelly fishes, just so far as their lives assume definiteness in form and stability in action, they are but bundles of habits. Our virtues and our vices alike are habits.

If now it be true, as Prof. James says, that education is for behavior, and that habits are the stuff of which behavior consists, and if it be further true that there can be no habits except as the product of action, we are at length face to face with the real difficulty of character training in the public schools, where, indeed, the intellect may be trained, the sensi-

bilities may be stirred, but where opportunities for the action of the aroused and enlightened *will* are so hard to find.

Good talk in the abstract is of doubtful utility. "One practical opportunity seized, one stroke of behavior, which gives a set to character and works a good habit more deeply into the organic tissue," is worth a score of sermons.

Here, then, is the problem: How, by all our hero tales, our literature, our history, can we train boys to become really honest, generous and heroic men in action? Men who will consider "public office a public trust"; who will honestly report their property for taxation; who will not cheat the custom house upon their return from Europe; to whom graft is an abomination, and rebates a horror; who will not make and unmake laws for a price, or make a vulgar traffic of that privilege, which, rightly used, "executes a freeman's will, as lightning does the will of God"?

First of all, we must teach proper ideals. However much we may inveigh against mere sentiment divorced from action, it remains true that lofty ideals are the best hope of nobility in conduct.

Here, then, we can begin our labors for the cultivation of civic righteousness. Imitate the Spartan Iren in his training of Spartan boys, who used to ask his pupils what they thought of such and such actions, who was the best man in the city, etc. Ask the boys and girls to discuss and judge the conduct of the man who, hired to work for the city, does as little as he can for the money; of the public official who sells goods to the city at prices far above what he charges to private individuals; of the city counsellor who uses his official position as a vantage ground for real estate speculation; of the father and mother who lie about the age of their child to escape paying

the proper railroad fare; of the legislator who accepts free passes from the railroad company; of the tax-dodger, the bribe-taker, the bribe-giver.

Then every page of history and literature may be made to yield its best result in the elevation of the ideals of life cherished by our boys and girls, in impressing upon their minds and hearts the thought that the basis of all reward, and the test even of the right to exist, is the service we can render to our fellow-men, and that he who would be greatest of all must be the servant of all.

But that all these fine ideals may find themselves enshrined in action, let the children consciously enlist in the service of the state. The state is theirs, the city is theirs, the town is theirs, the dirty streets are theirs, the desks and books they so carelessly deface belong to no abstraction called "the town," but to themselves; theirs, then, the interest and duty of caring for and guarding. If the arbitrary government of the teacher leads to irresponsibility in action and contempt for authority; if arbitrary prohibitions tempt to evasion and deceit, and cultivate a demoralizing disregard for law, turn the enemy's weapons against himself. In place of the autocratic master substitute the sovereign authority of the school republic. In place of decrees from the desk put enactments of the school legislature, passed after adequate reflection and free discussion. When, through "home rule" in the schoolroom, the same body obeys, also enacts and executes the laws; when, through a proper realization of their relation to the state, the boys shall regard school property as a pupil's trust; when, because of the development of proper ideals, the boys emerge from school holding in contempt the tax-dodger and the grafter; when, from the study of daily life, they come to see that the heroisms of peace are

greater than those of war; and, finally, when, through their sports and games, honor and self-control have been developed, the schools will become in fact what they always have been in theory, the nurseries, not of intelligence only, but also of good and upright citizens.

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### HONOR AMONG SCHOOL CHILDREN.

ROBERT CLARK, ELIZABETH, N. J.

Honor, whether found among thieves, or on the duelists' field of honor, whether with the chivalrous knight, or with the college student, has a common characteristic—loyalty to its code.

Every novel is tinged with honor, public speeches are sparkling with the word, and college catalogues make abundant use of the term, yet very often very little is written on the virtue itself, and definitions are vague and rare.

Children's ideas of honor are practically nil, and their illustrations of things honorable range all the way from tying up one's shoe to the freeing of the slaves; "it is honorable to go to church because you get a good opinion of yourself." "Fighting is dishonorable because it is bad for the eyes."

Yet there is a common agreement that the person who is loyal to the group is a person of honor. Group loyalty is strengthened in schools by such systems as the Ray Plan of Pupil Co-operation and the School City. These schemes have met with general success, especially in the grade schools between the high and the primary. But the most permanent systems of self-government are those that are the most spontaneous and natural, such as the George Jr. Republic and

the "Rudimentary Society," at the McDonough Farm School for Boys. Pupils are loyal to these school groups and their codes when the machinery is not too delicate to stand a moderate amount of friction; when adapted to the pupils of a particular school or locality; when heartily favored by both teachers and pupils; and when the school children are honestly treated in being trusted.

There is an individual as well as a group sense of honor; the doing what one knows to be right when trusted, even though the person placed on trust is sure he is not watched.

The basis of all honor is loyalty to a code of ethics; the test of honor is fidelity to one's trust.

Suggestions based upon a study among school children of their individual sense of honor, indicated that girls are slightly more likely to act honorably when trusted than boys; that, though the conduct of the child depends to a large extent upon home influence and the personality of the teacher, yet "individual variations" are strikingly noticed; that many children distrust the honesty of the persons trusting them; and that though the child when trusted will seldom act from a sense of honor, yet he will act in the way hoped for by the person who trusts him. This makes a foundation upon which to build a strong honor sentiment, and it is the privilege of the school not only to inculcate a code of practical ethics, but also to educate the pupil into an unswerving fidelity to the code.



## THE SCHOOL CITY.

RALPH ALBERTSON,  
SECRETARY, NATIONAL SCHOOL CITY LEAGUE.

The School City is an organization of the pupils of a school patterned after a city form of government for the purpose of enlisting the pupils in the government of the school, and giving them such training in morals and civics as can be given only in the discipline of actual experience.

The best method of organizing a school city is first, to explain it to the pupils and then let them petition the principal and teachers of the school for the establishment of the system. When a petition, signed by about two-thirds of the pupils of the school, has been received, the principal and teachers, acting, if you please, as the governor and legislature of the state, may prepare and extend to the pupils a charter establishing their civic rights and responsibilities. This charter should be ratified by a two-thirds vote of the citizens. It stipulates the form and functions of the school city, its officers and their duties, the responsibilities of citizens, the relation of the organization to the teachers, the various departments and their activities, and, in fact, everything that would ordinarily be stipulated in a charter issued by a state legislature to a municipality. It can, of course, be revised by the power that issues it, that is, by the principal and teachers. It can also, for sufficient cause, be revoked. This charter is the foundation of the school city system. It makes the organization a reality; in fact, makes it possible. The principal and teachers remain in their rightful position of ultimate authority.

During the first few weeks, and sometimes the first

year, of a School City's life, the principal function is that of the police and the courts. School City policemen are always instructed in civic politeness. They are told that in the great cities a policeman's principal business is not to arrest people, but to keep people from getting into trouble and to be generally useful. They are also told that warnings must precede arrests; that the best governed city is that in which the fewest arrests are necessary, but they are impressed at the same time with the necessity of being firm and loyal to the law and the welfare of the school.

The School City court is usually composed of one judge, although there is sometimes a bench of three judges. The cultivation of the judicial frame of mind is not by any means confined to the judges in these school cities. In a small school particularly, practically all of the children, as well as the judge, become acquainted with the details of the cases that come up, and get some discipline in reserving judgment, in weighing evidence, in respecting the rights of the accused, in maintaining an impartial attitude, and in seeking equal justice for all.

The School City is both a system of school government and a method of moral and civic training. It is not the prime purpose of the School City to produce better order in the schools. Most of the schools that have adopted the School City were in no special need of reform in their discipline.

It is hoped by those who have taken an interest in the School City method that it will produce better citizens—that it will form in the young people habits of attending to civic duties, looking after the public welfare, taking a public-spirited interest in public affairs,—that it will so train them in the performance of the duties of citizenship that, after commencement, they will not depart therefrom. This is surely a rea-

sonable hope. Its best strength, however, is based, first, upon the practical knowledge of civics which the School City gives to the children and the teachers, and, second, upon the civic morality which it inculcates. The School City is a method of teaching by doing. It is this method applied to civics and to morals.

But it is as affording the teacher opportunity for inculcating personal and civic morality that the School City is of greatest value. And this is done by raising the standard of discipline to the level of self-discipline as nearly as possible, and by employing the ordinary experience of school life in the development of self-control, self-respect, a social consciousness, and a civic consciousness.

## Department of Normal Training.

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### A TEACHER'S OBLIGATIONS TO HIMSELF.

GEORGE I. ALDRICH,  
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,  
BROOKLINE, MASS.

The first obligation which a teacher owes to himself is to ask in the early days of his career whether he has chosen his vocation wisely. If not compelled by stress of circumstance, it would be better for the teacher who finds he has mistaken his calling, to give up teaching and try something he is better fitted for.

Second. A teacher is under obligations to do everything possible to secure abounding physical health. Efficiency in teaching and general happiness depend to such an extent upon health that it should in no wise be neglected.

Third. A teacher should preserve his faith in child nature, in the essential goodness of children. Few children are deliberately bad, and those very children who seem troublesome today, in future years are likely to be worthy and efficient citizens. While corporal punishment should be used sparingly, it should not be made impossible. All authority ultimately rests upon force. It is a right of the child to be made to obey, and if he can be made to obey in no better way, bodily punishment should be resorted to. A child should be punished when he needs punishment. Is it any worse to irritate the skin than to irritate the sensibilities?

Fourth. A teacher, and this applies to women more than to men, should cultivate a certain serenity

of disposition. School should not be the single topic of conversation and thought.

Fifth. A teacher should work out a certain secure anchorage, in the way of beliefs, to which for a time he may cling. Otherwise he is at the mercy of every pedagogical wind which may blow.

Sixth. A teacher should find it a worthy ambition to hope and work for promotion, larger salary and greater responsibilities.

Seventh. The teacher should try, as far as possible, to keep in touch with the boys and girls when they leave school and enter upon active life.

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### DISCUSSION.

GEORGE C. PURINGTON,  
PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,  
FARMINGTON, MAINE.

The state assumes the education of the child for its own purposes. The child must be educated to perpetuate the state. Teachers need to feel this more and more in order to be successful. A teacher should prepare himself to teach better than the state will pay for.

I agree heartily with the remarks of Mr. Aldrich in regard to the teacher's health. There are more failures on account of ill health than anything else. A teacher is under obligations to put himself in such condition that he can be happy and cheerful in his work.

A teacher should have a large amount of freedom to work out methods. The ideal school will have teachers with more freedom than they have today. There is nothing more deadening than to work under

a tyrannical and unreasonable superintendent. Teachers are not respected as they should be. Teachers should be citizens.

I wish also to emphasize what the previous speaker said about keeping in touch with our pupils. In the twenty-three years in which I have been in my present position, I have graduated over one thousand pupils, and I know today the record of each one, and this acquaintance with the graduates of our school is a constant source of inspiration to me in my daily work.

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## DISCUSSION.

### THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

PROFESSOR CHARLES H. JUDD,  
YALE UNIVERSITY.

The adequate training of teachers depends not so much upon the subject matter which they are taught, as upon the way in which they are led to treat the subject matter. For example, a person preparing to teach may be given a great deal of arithmetic or geography and yet be poorly qualified to teach these subjects because the subject matter has merely been memorized, not learned in a scientific way. If the training in these or any other subjects is such as to make the prospective teacher scientific, that is, competent to work out the principles involved for himself, then the training will be much more than arithmetic or geography; it will be preparation to attack any problem independently and scientifically. A teacher thus trained will study his method of teaching children, for this also is a problem of a strictly scientific kind. To find out what are a given child's dif-



difficulties in a specific case is not a problem in general psychology or in mathematics or geography, but it is a problem in the scientific investigation of the teacher's world. Preparation in the method of attacking such a problem can be gained in any well mastered science.

Second, a teacher's training should not be confined to those subjects which are to be taught. No teacher can long continue to do effective teaching who does not study subjects which conduce to his own non-professional mental development. Every general course of study for teachers should be extended so as to include subjects which will serve the ends of "teacher-education," even if these subjects have no direct relation to school work.

**Department of Secondary Education.**

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**INSPIRATIONAL AND DISCIPLINARY  
STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

HENRY A. TIRRELL,  
NORWICH FREE ACADEMY,  
NORWICH, CONN.

It is an interesting fact that the opinions most dear to all of us are reached not by a process of conclusive proof, but rather by a balancing of probabilities. For this reason we are reluctant to change from any course of action that has been found to be safe. For the uncertainty of our knowledge "makes us rather bear those ills we have, than fly to others that we know not of."

In the theory and practice of education, for instance, as in the theory and practice of government, and, in fact, of most institutions that involve human nature, we progress safely only by building on the experience of the past, never discarding the old unless we have something better to put in its place. But, though we cling fast to experience, it is obvious that rational and systematic experiment may in a brief time cover fields of investigation that unguided experience might not have traversed in many years. Experiments are being made today in almost all lines of secondary school work. It is our task to join what is best in new ideas to what is best in older educational thought.

In zeal to promote rapid progress much has been written of so radical a nature as to disturb a true view of the relative importance of past experience and more recent suggestions. Educational aims that are

really mutually helpful are often treated as if they were antagonistic. It is wise for us to remember that the best in recent educational ideas is the natural development of the best views of former times.

Compare, for instance, that view of education as a discipline, which is often called the Doctrine of Effort, and the view of education as a free growth of all that is best in one's nature, which we may call the Doctrine of Interest.

The fundamental truth of the Doctrine of Effort is this, that strength, moral, mental or physical, can be attained only by long continued effort. The fundamental truth of the Doctrine of Interest is this, that most pupils have a constitutional aptitude for certain lines of mental activity; and that society and the individual gain most if this natural bent be considered in the pupils' education. These positions are not antagonistic if rightly understood. The truth is that the pupil who has an appreciative interest in a given line of thought will work harder and gain more discipline therefrom than the one who is unable to grasp the subject. The difficulty is that both views of education have often been misunderstood. Much has been called discipline that was not disciplinary; much has been considered due to interest that was due to momentary caprice. The abuse of pseudo-disciplinary courses has led to the sacrificing of ability in one line to stupidity in another, the crushing out of individuality. The abuse of the Doctrine of Interest has led to laziness of pupils and to aimless drifting, due to premature freedom of choice in important matters. When we shall have added the best of recent thought to the best thought of the past, we shall have courses of study so framed as to allow freedom to individual development, but also require concentrated effort in the chosen work.

Another phase of the Doctrine of Interest may be called the Doctrine of Inspiration. Secondary schools, it is said, should inspire the pupil, should give to him ideals, appreciation, an insight into the essence of certain lines of thought. This doctrine emphasizes the creation and upbuilding of new interests as well as the consideration of the evident natural bent of the pupil.

Much poor teaching, I believe, has come from a misunderstanding of this idea. Teachers have felt that by catching the attention of the pupils in any way whatever they were giving inspirational instruction, and so have omitted thorough study of the less attractive portions of a subject. In the vain effort to leap suddenly to the noblest fruit of instruction they have neglected the substantial good close at hand.

Rightly understood, disciplinary and inspirational teaching are necessary to each other, as necessary as language and thought. There is no short cut to the power of appreciation. Only those who labor can appreciate the labor of others. Intelligent appreciation can come only as the result of arduous application to the study of fundamental principles. Inspiration is the joint product of a training which can be controlled and a natural gift which we cannot control. Only a few can gain that full spirit of understanding that we seek. None can get it without discipline.

Disciplinary instruction is not merely a necessary part of inspirational teaching, but it is a positive aid thereto. There comes to the pupil at first a vague and weak form of interest in a subject which leads him to investigate further. Additional information adds to his insight and fires his zeal; and so by alternate steps of interest and effort he progresses toward mastery. And should this mutual co-operation of

zeal and effort fail to take place, then discipline renders noble service in driving out the feeble sentimentalist from the followers of truth.

As the disciplinary value of any subject becomes greater its inspirational power becomes greater. In mathematics, for instance, the increasing drill in original work, calling for more familiarity with fundamental rules, leaves also in the apt pupil's mind a greater appreciation of mathematical thought. Improved methods of historical study, giving better mental discipline, inspire students with a spirit of investigation, a keener insight into the philosophy of life. Science has become a most valuable inspirational study, not because of a change in its content, but because students are now drilled in scientific method.

There is one department of secondary school work that seems more important than all others, inclusive of all others, and that is the department of moral training. I think in these days we need to emphasize more than we do the need of moral discipline. We hear a great deal about moral inspiration and not so much about moral discipline.

How can we give to a pupil a taste for the moral life? In spite of the somewhat common feeling that character is largely a matter of sudden inspiration, I believe that, as in other sorts of instruction, we should direct our efforts chiefly to the drill in fundamental principles.

Every one of us, to be sure, has known instances of apparently sudden conversion to moral living. But if we examine these cases we shall find either that the previous life was not all bad, that the pupils had already strength of will with a lack of proper understanding, that the student simply changed from disobedience to obedience of our school rules, or perhaps that the change to outwardly moral conduct

was due to some sentiment other than morality. For a great many children at high school age have not reached that love of morality that makes one do right because it is right. They choose the right because some one dear to them admires moral action, because public opinion demands moral action, because some higher or lower motive, not strictly the love of virtue, leads them to do so.

Not all pupils can acquire moral inspiration, though most pupils can acquire moral habits. It is our task to train in moral habit, using the highest incentives we can aid the pupil, and trusting that moral insight will come with time and growth.

The highest incentive that a public school can use to train pupils in moral habit lies in the personality of the teachers. This personal, moral influence of teachers does not vary, strange to say, with the morality of the teachers, but rather with the admiration of the pupils for the teachers. It is a matter of common remark that some pupils will repeatedly lie to one teacher and tell the truth to another, though the personal goodness of the teachers be the same. School sentiment in moral affairs is formed chiefly by this personal influence of teachers working on the best pupils of the school. Having, then, this strong influence of good teachers, and having other stimuli to action, how shall we drill the student?

In the first place, we must emphasize immediate moral choice, because such choice can be carried out in action, and will therefore strengthen the moral habit. How can a boy gain moral insight from a contemplation of the evils of partnership in municipal affairs, if this same boy is intending to vote for a candidate for school honors solely because the candidate belongs to the same fraternity with himself?



The immediate choice is the important one, and will control the future choice.

Secondly, we must realize that to most students a large part of school life is neither moral nor immoral, but unmoral. You may argue with a healthy boy about the immorality of note passing and whispering, but you cannot make him see that any moral issue is involved. And so far as his conscience is concerned, he is right. But if this boy be led by the highest motives that appeal to him to adopt good habits in this unmoral field, such as punctuality, accuracy, thoroughness and neatness, he may, with time and growth, gain the moral inspiration. We should, furthermore, by instruction and example, lessen this unmoral field and increase the field of moral choice as fast as the student can understand it. In the broadening of the moral vision, however, we should strive to direct his drill to daily duties that he can carry out, rather than to distant sentiments that he cannot carry out for years.

Thirdly, moral discipline does not imply choice in all matters in the moral field. Freedom of choice should be allowed only when there is a probability that the pupil will choose the right. It is as evidently unwise to submit the weak-willed pupil to strong temptation as to allow a weak-muscled child to play football. All school activities that give an opportunity for self-expression are valuable in so far as they tend to promote conscious choice of the right.

In the teaching of moral habits, as in the teaching of habits of speech, there is danger that the habits of school will be overruled by the habits outside of school. If parents could be persuaded that the most practical education is education in doing one's duty, we should have a better ground in which to sow the moral seed.

I believe that today we need, I will not say less

emphasis on the ethical content of such studies as history, but far more emphasis on the ethical content of the "daily round, the common task."

Let us not, in our zeal for the noble ideals of the new education, disregard the firm and necessary discipline from which grow moral, mental, and physical strength.

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## ENGLISH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

MR. SMILEY,

PRINCIPAL, HARTFORD, CONN., HIGH SCHOOL.

It is generally a very dangerous thing to speak without special preparation, and doubtless the present instance will prove no exception to the rule. I had not expected to be present today, but when, at the breakfast table this morning, Mrs. Smiley called my attention to the fact that Prof. Baldwin was to discuss the question of English in the Secondary School, I felt that I must put aside my intended program for the day and avail myself of the privilege of listening to his address—and this for several reasons. In the first place, the Secondary Schools in all their departments owe a great debt to the College, and, in particular, the Secondary Schools of this commonwealth owe a great debt to this fine old University. It is a matter of great significance to both College and Secondary Schools throughout the land, that the men and women in each of these great fields of educational work are coming to understand and appreciate more and more fully the special problems and difficulties of the other. And of all these perplexing problems none calls for more intelligent conference and co-operation.

Hardly two Secondary School men approach the English problem from the same point, and, judging from the character of the English papers set by the various colleges in any one year, or by the same college in different years, hardly two colleges and hardly two men from the same college have the same ideas as to what should be *really* aimed at by the Secondary School. I am sure that there is need that we should get nearer together, and equally confident that such greater nearness will greatly simplify and at the same time greatly improve and strengthen the conditions in both the Secondary School and the College. The Secondary School greatly desires to do the very best for its students, both with reference to their subsequent work in college and with regard to their best preparation for refined and cultured citizenship.

But the problem is a very complicated one, *at the least*, and the difficulties are further increased by a fact which, in its bearing upon the question of Americanizing the large admixture of our constantly increasing foreign population, is, after all, a matter for congratulation; namely, that into our Secondary School classes there are coming young men, bright, earnest, and of keen intellectual ability, but whose environment, whose home influence and heredity are constant influences against the correct and accurate use of English, which we so much desire. To me the constant wonder is *not* that they do so *poorly* with our most difficult English, but, considering all the influences in the case, that they do so remarkably well. The mechanics of their English may be faulty—their spelling may be atrocious—indeed, I should be somewhat reluctant to submit their productions to the keen scrutiny of an examining board, but in not a few cases their literary appreciations of the beautiful things in literature, their ready grasp and under-

standing of the arguments of a masterpiece like Burke's Conciliation speech, and their consequent vital interest in such a speech are evidently worthy of high commendation. I may refer to a case in point. The young man in our recently graduated class, whose real literary ability, whose acquaintance with and appreciation of the finest touches of literary excellence was not surpassed, and I think not equalled, by that of any member of a class of a hundred and fifty bright young men and women, is and always will be, I fear, unless Yale can do for him what earnest and constant attention to the subject on our part has thus far failed to do, below par in the use of English. I readily grant that a theme badly written as regards spelling is a literary abomination. I readily grant also that Yale professors ought not to be vexed by faulty English. And yet I wonder if the facts were thoroughly known in this individual case, whether such a candidate ought to be marked a failure. What shall we do about such cases?

A few months ago I was courteously asked to give my opinion as to whether Yale should continue to give her own examinations, in view of the remarkably fair and reasonable papers which the College Entrance Board are setting in nearly, if not all, departments. I unhesitatingly replied in the affirmative, and yet I think that the work of this board is wonderfully suggestive of a remedy for many of the difficulties which confront us in all departments, but especially in the department of English. The remedy, in my judgment, lies in the adoption, in a measure, at least, of the plan adopted by the board, namely, the association in the making of the papers of men of recognized ability from the Secondary School.

Finally, examinations ought not to be a test of speed. A scholar at eighteen cannot do as quickly

the same problem as one who has had more experience. No two pupils have the same reaction time, and no two assimilate and digest facts or reproduce them mechanically. If there is a brief limit of time the one taking the test tries to put down on paper as many words as possible in the given time without weighing the value of the statements made. There should be few enough questions so that the answers may be given lucidly, coherently and carefully.

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### DISCUSSION.

DR. THOMAS M. BALLIET

With regard to the time limit, Yale and Harvard are altogether too difficult. There is a wide range of difference in human beings. There is also vast difference in the ability of men at different ages. A man at 35 can work immensely faster than at 18. Because the instructor at the first named age can do the problems of a test in a certain time, it does not follow that the one tested can do the work equally fast. It may take him two or three times as long, and very reasonably, since he has not done two or three thousand problems of the same general character.

The colleges force high schools to teach formulæ rather than reasoning in Algebra. This is a great mistake. The value of the course in Algebra is largely in the development of the reasoning powers. When formulæ are learned, the memory may be strengthened, but it is at the expense of reasoning power. College professors ought to visit good high schools in order to realize the ability of the secondary student.

The difference between two examination papers

does not entirely indicate the amount of knowledge possessed by the respective people, but does indicate a difference in their tastes. Both may be thorough students, and yet in a certain line of thought one may have a greater appreciation, will express himself better and more clearly.

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### DISCUSSION.

D. W. HOYT, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

I would suggest that it would be a good plan to have scholars write, once a year, upon topics given by judges, and that they have no help except a dictionary. This would demand broader knowledge and would be a better test than the ordinary essay.

There are three classes of students in our schools, which make the problem of teaching English harder: families where only good English is spoken, families where poor English is spoken, and families where no English is spoken.

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### COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

PROF. H. S. PERSON,  
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

I am very glad that the American Institute of Instruction has made the subjects of discussion in the Department of Secondary Education that of Commercial and Industrial Education. Because of conditions peculiar to the United States, to the development of such an institution as commercial education, discus-



sion is vital. We do not have, as do some other countries, a minister of education, who, with his colleagues, constituting an executive committee on education, can consider the desirability of putting into operation a new instrument of education and can determine the exact form which it shall take. We do not have such a committee to devise these institutions and to impose them from above. With us such institutions develop by a process of integration. First, Superintendent A in Massachusetts, Superintendent B in Connecticut, and Superintendent C in Ohio convince their respective boards that a commercial course is desirable, and we find such courses introduced into their respective schools. During the next year a dozen other schools establish such courses; during the third year a score of schools, and so on. In the course of a decade or two we look upon the so-called system of education in the United States and observe that it comprehends a system of commercial education as well as a system of general education. But what a system! Because of the very nature of its origin and development, this so-called system is but an aggregation of isolated units, each of which originated and developed under local conditions. These units have but one thing in common—they are all called commercial courses. They may, indeed many of them, have one other thing in common,—the curriculum of one may have been copied from the catalogue of another. But no two of the superintendents may have the same conception of commercial education, of its nature and function, and of its relation to the general educational system; of the constituent courses that should make up a commercial course, and of the relative importance of their constituent courses. The one thing that makes possible some sort of unity in what would otherwise become a chaos

of a system is discussion,—serious discussion; and for that reason I am glad, I say again, that the Department of Secondary Education of this Institute has made possible such a discussion. And permit me to say, further, that, inasmuch as the responsibility of opening this particular discussion has fallen upon me, I shall be disappointed if earnest discussion is not provoked.

I do not purpose to satisfy the desires of many of you by considering the constituent courses that should make up a secondary commercial course. I have found in my conversations with superintendents and principals, that the question, With what courses shall I build up my commercial course? is uppermost in the minds of many. It is an important question, condition precedent to the construction of a commercial course, but more important and condition precedent to the consideration of that specific question are others, questions involving fundamental considerations. It is out of the discussion of fundamental questions, if out of anything, that system can develop. We may have system without identity of courses, but we may not have system without identity of purpose.

I wish in the first place to call your attention to the nature and aim of commercial education, and in doing so, first, to consider certain false conceptions of its nature and aim, and then to consider what, in my judgment, is the true conception.

In conversations with those interested in the subject, I have discovered at least three false conceptions of the purpose of a secondary commercial course.

The first and least worthy conception is distinguished by the absence of any idea at all of its nature and purpose. This circumstance arises out of the fact that there is a certain competition between high schools and between superintendents, a desirable, life-

giving competition, but one which at times is neither desirable nor life-giving. Superintendent A sees that Superintendent B has established a commercial course, therefore he, Superintendent A, must establish one in his school. That is its main purpose,—to satisfy a sense of personal rivalry. The course that results may be a reasonably good one, for it may be copied from the catalogue of Superintendent B, but even in that case it lacks the life-giving element of impersonal enthusiasm and of a vital interest in the broader purposes of its establishment. Fortunately, commercial courses with such an origin are rare, for which reason we need not give further attention to them.

The second false conception of the purpose of a commercial course is that it is to offer itself as an easy course for indigent or deficient students. There are in every high school students of this sort, students who because of mental inability or because of sheer laziness, are threatened with a failure to complete the classical or the scientific course. Now, a commercial course may be so constituted as to fall within the capacity or the willingness of these students to complete it; to certain of the less difficult of the courses already existing in a particular school are added other courses of a practical nature—bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, and so on, and lo, we have a commercial course within the range of the capacities of these students. A troublesome problem has been solved; a class of students who have threatened to remain perpetual attendants at the high school or to be dismissed without a diploma, has been taken care of; these students have been graduated from the high school along with their less deficient or less lazy companions.

It is needless for me to insist that this perverted idea of the purpose of a commercial course is to be deplored. It is an injury to the institution of com-

mercial education which we are endeavoring to develop, that it must carry under its name the burden of courses designed for the lazy student.

The third false conception of the purpose of the commercial course, which I have met with in conversation, is that its purpose is not primarily to effect commercial education, but to use commercial courses as a bait to induce students who might otherwise drop from the high school, to continue their education. There are many students, and there are many parents, who look upon any course beyond the grammar school as valueless because not practical. "What do I want to go through the high school for?" says the student. "I'm not going to college; I'm going into business, and practical experience is better than any history or botany or chemistry." The sympathetic superintendent, perceiving this prejudice on the part of the student for "practical experience," introduces into his curriculum courses that are popularly considered practical, and with these as a decoy, induces the student to continue his high school course. Two-thirds or more of the subjects the student studies are what we call "general culture" studies; studies that the student and the student's parents had rejected; but that makes no difference now, they are part of what is called a commercial course. The student is satisfied, and the superintendent is conscious of a worthy work accomplished; he has caused students who would never have pursued their studies beyond the grammar school or a year or two in the high school, to receive a high school training.

I wish to give the superintendent who accomplishes this result all the credit that is his due. It is a worthy work accomplished. I think I see his point of view. He is influenced by personal relationships, not by an impersonal educational theory. He

knows John Smith and Robert Doe personally, knows their strong points and their weak ones, knows that if he can induce them to finish the high school course he will have helped them greatly. His is not the social but the personal point of view.

On the other hand, those of us whose field of instruction is such as to make our relationships less personal, who are therefore influenced by the social rather than by the personal point of view, cannot but deplore the existence of such motives as the second and third ones I have described for the establishment of courses of commercial education. We would that the superintendent should have an educational theory—a social theory as to the purpose of commercial education, and that then, *within the limits set by that theory*, he should permit personal relationships to influence him. It was chiefly to present to your consideration this social aspect of the purpose of commercial education that I gladly embrace the opportunity to address you, so kindly offered to me.

The *raison d'etat* of commercial education, secondary and higher, is the increase of industrial efficiency, or, to confine myself to my part of the field, the increase of commercial education or business efficiency. And by business or commercial efficiency I mean technical efficiency.

The influence of training upon business efficiency may be of two sorts. There is the training which promotes that efficiency by increasing the general capacity of the student without reference to any particular application of that capacity; and there is the training which promotes that efficiency by increasing the capacity of the student with reference to a particular application of it. The traditional grammar school, high school and college courses promote

efficiency in the first way; it is the function of commercial education to increase it in the second way.

It has long been the defense of public education, especially of free and compulsory public education, that it raises the general level of intelligence. The earlier writers on this subject had in mind intelligence in judging of public affairs. The promotion of intelligent citizenship was deemed essential to the safety of a democratic form of government. But it has been observed, in the experience of a hundred years, that this general intelligence has no specific reference. It has made more intelligent citizenship, more intelligent teaching, more intelligent study and practice of law; it has made an individual more intelligent and therefore more efficient in his several capacities—as citizen, as business man, with regard to family life, in social intercourse. It has, I wish to emphasize, made more intelligent and therefore more efficient the practice of business, both in principal and in subsidiary positions. It has made more efficient stenographers, more efficient bookkeepers, more efficient clerks of all kinds, and out of them have developed more efficient business men. Business has come to recognize this. The graduate of a business college who has had a high school training secures a position much more readily than a similar graduate who has had no high school training. I call your attention to this relation of the general disciplinary or cultural secondary training to business efficiency in order to make clear the fact that such training has been in a sense a commercial training, and that any new instrument which proposes to offer a commercial training must justify its addition to the educational system by offering something new, by promoting business efficiency in a new way.

This new intelligence, this new efficiency, by the promotion of which this new instrument, commercial



education, must justify its addition to our educational system, is technical intelligence, professional efficiency. It is a specific efficiency, having reference to a specific activity—business. The training that accomplishes it must be a specialized training. The commercial course must not be the general high school course slightly modified and seasoned; it must not aim to effect the same sort of training that is effected by the conventional high school course; in that case we should in effect be duplicating our instruments of education. Neither should its purpose be to provide an easy course for indigent students; no course of study is so hard as a specialized professional course, and to justify its existence, the commercial course must be a specialized, professional course. It should not, furthermore, be a decoy to induce students who are prejudiced against culture courses to continue work in such courses under the guise of commercial education. It should not be cultural in its nature; it should not aim to lead more advanced work. It should be a thorough, difficult, specialized final training.

I may perhaps be able to make this argument clearer by assuming that we are agreed that the great purpose of commercial education is to increase business efficiency, and by proceeding to a consideration of the way in which it may increase that efficiency.

The technical efficiency that should be the aim of a commercial course to develop must result in the first place from the nature of the constituent courses that make up the general commercial course. These courses should be practical, that is, have a direct reference to business. I have in mind not only the practice courses, bookkeeping, typewriting and stenography, but practical courses like commercial mathematics, commercial French, German and Spanish, composition and rhetoric, commercial geography and

courses that do not yet exist in a form simplified for secondary use—a course that is a combination of economic theory and industrial history, another that considers the resources and industries of the United States, another that considers the technical development of leading industries, and another that does not content itself to merely dabble with paper money, but which considers the development of business methods and the significance of organization, system, and so on. I mention these courses because they illustrate my point—they are, as you have observed, practical, in a sense, professional courses, and not cultural. On this point I disagree with Professor Herrick of the Philadelphia Commercial High School, who has written more than any one else on secondary commercial education. He says, somewhere in his book, that the commercial course must always keep in mind the general training of the student, and that the greater part of the student's time must be given to studies that afford a general training. I am of the opinion, on the contrary, that when the student takes up commercial work he should leave general training behind, and should receive a training that is specialized and practical, that has the sole aim of promoting technical efficiency.

This technical efficiency may be promoted in the second place by the manner in which the commercial course is organized, by the place that is given it in the general educational system. I have observed a tendency in the organization of both secondary and university courses in commerce to make such courses parallel the general high school or university courses, to make them four-year courses. Were they four-year courses in commerce, I should not have the same ground for objection that I now have. But they are not four-year courses in commerce; they are the or-

dinary four-year night school or college courses with a commercial course or two introduced into each year. The whole four-year course does not contain enough purely commercial work to make one year, at most two years, of solid commercial work. The result of scattering the commercial courses through four years of work is to neutralize one of the great forces that makes for business efficiency; the force of professional enthusiasm that results when the student, whether in the high school or in the university, is conscious of studying in a given field for a given purpose, is conscious of representing a distinct class of students. This consciousness creates an esprit that acts in a twofold way—it makes the student more enthusiastic in his studies while in school and it makes him attack his problems with more enthusiasm when he goes out into business life. To develop this class esprit the commercial courses should be offered in the last year, or the last two, or the last three years of the high school course; whatever the time they occupy, they should be offered in a compact group. The student should feel, when he enters upon the commercial course, that he leaves the high school behind, that he enters another institution and takes up work for a definite purpose; he should be made to feel this, even though the commercial course is conducted in the same building, with the same superintendent and with some of the teachers the same.

You will permit me to use a figure of speech used upon another occasion to illustrate this idea. The general educational system is a great highway. As we pass along its course, we pass through the region of primary education, then through the region of secondary education, and finally through the region of college education. The purpose of those who pass along this highway through these various regions is

to receive a disciplinary and cultural education, to develop in themselves the man. Nowhere along this highway is the opportunity offered to develop the specialist. But when all come to the end of the highway and gaze over into the region of university education we see that the highway resolves itself into a number of roads that spread out into the region of university education. We read the sign boards that mark these various roads. "To a special training for teaching the classics," "To a special training for teaching English," "To a special training for the engineering profession," "To a special training for the law," and so on. Where is the road that leads to a training for business? We find one at the end of the highway leading into the region of university education, "To a higher training for business" and "To a training for teaching commercial subjects." But where do we find the roads that lead to the commercial training of the secondary school. Well, in the first place, because of the way in which some secondary commercial courses are organized, we have passed these courses by without recognizing them—they were in the main highway. In the second place, with respect to those that are organized according to the theory which I have presented, had we looked sharply, we should have observed, at various places, at that part of the highway representing the end of the grammar school course, or at that part representing the end of the second year of the high school course, certain roads branching out at right angles from the main highway. On those guide posts marking the roads to the one side, we should have observed "To special training for the trades"; on those marking the roads to the other side, "To a special training for commerce."

The commercial course may be made to promote business efficiency, in the third place, through the per-

sonnel of the instructing force. As in all cases where there is specialized instruction, there must be specially trained instructors. We are of course at the beginning of the development of commercial education, and competent instructors, that is, especially trained instructors, are difficult to find. But they can be found, or at any rate they can be made. Institutions of higher commercial education are prepared to train teachers in the subject. It is possible for any superintendent in New England to select one of the best members of his teaching force and send him to us at the Tuck School, or to the University of New York, for special training to teach secondary commercial subjects. In addition to the genius for instructing, which is necessary in all teachers, what are the special qualifications required of a teacher of commercial subjects? They are three in number, and no one of them can be said to be of less importance than the others. The instructor should have, first, a thorough knowledge of his subject; he should know it scientifically. The knowledge can be acquired only through prolonged and thorough study under competent guidance. He should have, second, an infinite amount of common sense; that is, a sense of practical affairs. The knowledge he should have should not be mere book knowledge; it should be book knowledge interpreted by observation of practical affairs. The teacher of commercial subjects should be a man of affairs as well as a student of books. He should have, in the third place, an unbounded enthusiasm for his subject—a professional enthusiasm, a business enthusiasm. It should be impossible for the student to come into his presence without breathing in the atmosphere of a loyalty to business as a profession. It will take a long time to develop a sufficiently large body of instructors possessing these three special qualifications

in combination; and until a sufficient supply is developed, they will command good salaries; the price will have to be paid, however, or your commercial course will be a commercial course in name only.

I wish, in conclusion, to make two suggestions relative to the relation between secondary commercial education and higher commercial education. The first suggestion is that each of these institutions should aim to develop a distinct efficiency; the secondary commercial course should not attempt to rival the higher commercial course. It is possible for the institution of higher commercial education to offer training for specific business,—for banking, for insurance, for manufacturing, for railroading. The commercial high school should not attempt this specialization. Its sole aim should be to develop efficient office help, without reference to any particular business. The fundamental qualifications demanded of applicants for routine clerical positions are practically the same for all businesses; it is to develop these qualifications that the commercial high school should aim. It cannot successfully accomplish more.

The second suggestion that I wish to make is that every commercial school, lower or higher, should look upon itself as a professional "finishing" school, and not as a school offering preparation for more advanced study. The commercial course of the high school should be for those students who want a business training and cannot or will not continue their education beyond the high school. The regular high school course should be the avenue to the college, not the commercial course. The question has sometimes been asked whether the high school commercial course might not be preparatory to the college commercial course. In my judgment, no. The advanced commercial course, paradoxical as it may sound, does not



want its students prepared by a commercial course. It wants the students who come to it to pursue their general training up to the last minute.

The secondary commercial course, therefore, should be for those students who cannot pursue their studies farther. The commercial high school should say to the student: "Go on through the regular high school course into the college if you can; if you come into the commercial course you will receive a specialized finish to your training, but you will not be prepared for college work, not even college commercial work. But if for financial or other reasons you cannot go further, and if you intend to enter business, come into the commercial course and we will give you the best specialized training for business possible for one of your age and stage of development."

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## DISCUSSION.

BERT E. MERRIAM,  
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,  
BELLOWS FALLS, VT.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I esteem it a great privilege to address you on this occasion and on this subject. It is said, "You cannot discuss a paper without disagreeing with the statements contained in that paper." I do not wish to disagree with Prof. Person.

I have been asked to speak on this subject because I have had some personal experience in teaching the commercial branches in connection with my own work as superintendent. My teaching has been during the past four years in the Junior and Senior classes of

the High School at Bellows Falls, Vermont. We have, as yet, no Commercial Course, strictly speaking, but allow pupils in the last two years either to elect the work, book-keeping, shorthand and type-writing, in addition to the other work of the courses, or to substitute it in place of some of the required work. In this way many of the brightest pupils in the Latin and classical courses have been able to take the work in connection with their other work and thus it has not interfered at all with the regular work.

In the beginning allow me to quote a passage which I recently came across in my reading. "With this atmosphere (the utilitarian) pervading the educational world, it is not very surprising that the student, in deciding upon the selection of certain courses, will ask himself: 'Is this particular study going to be useful to me?' In his somewhat immature judgment he is apt to lay greatest stress upon those subjects which he imagines may be converted most easily into cash in the immediate future, losing sight of the fact that there may be other things in life besides the mere accumulation of wealth or expertness in his profession."

I agree with the statement just made. I do not think that any pupil ought to be allowed to enter a commercial course, whether it be a four years' course or a two years' course, without the personal advice of both parent and teacher. Personally, I do not think that a commercial course ought to be extended over a period of four years, but should be confined to not more than two years. I would make the first two years of the course the same as the Latin or the Classical courses, and then with the continuation of the languages and English, take the subjects most helpful to a commercial education; that is, Commercial Arithmetic, Shorthand, Type-writing, Book-keeping, Com-

mercial Law and Commercial Forms and Practice with a most thorough course in English. I do not think that any pupil ought to be allowed to finish a commercial course without having had, at least, two years of Latin, more if possible. There is too strong a tendency in these days to take the subjects which are easiest and which appeal at once to the immature mind. A boy or a girl who is to enter the commercial life ought to have the thorough drill required in the careful study of Latin and Greek. None of the modern languages requires the painstaking, earnest, conscientious work that these two languages require. If he or she is to be successful, and by successful I mean most successful, not superficially so, there ought to be laid in the beginning of the High School a good foundation by some hard, thoughtful work. Too many of our young people, nowadays, take up the commercial courses in our High Schools and Business Colleges, who do so because they require little hard, patient preparation. I would never advise a careless, indolent, indifferent boy or girl to take a commercial course. Such pupils should be required, if they remain in school, to take up the other courses, and if they drop out before they are completed, some employer, business man, manufacturer or banker will have gained so much. None but the bright and energetic young pupils should be allowed to enter the commercial courses.

I will give three reasons why I think a commercial education is helpful and beneficial, and in one case preferable to a classical education. First. Many boys and girls who are taking a classical course in our High Schools come from homes where there is little money to help to carry on the education. If the commercial work can be taken in connection with the other work, it gives an opportunity for such boys and girls to find

work in offices during vacation time and on Saturdays, which otherwise they could not do. After such pupils have entered college, if they have this additional acquirement, they can often find work during the summer. I have in mind one young lady who took the commercial work in the Senior year of her High School course and was able each summer vacation while in college to come home and find work at once in the same office during the four years. Not only this, but she was able to secure work in the city where she attended college whenever she had the spare time. This is only one case out of many that might be cited. Second. There are many bright boys and girls who can never enter college, either from lack of means or from other causes. Such have to turn to other sources for a livelihood. To those young ladies who cannot attend college there are two principal avenues open; that of teaching and that of office work. It is of the latter that I would speak, especially. It is deplorable that so many of our young ladies enter a Business College before a good, thorough High School education is gained. It would be far better if this work could be taken at home in connection, as I have previously stated, with the High School course. Two years of work in the commercial branches would fit anyone to do the work required in an office. The young girl could thus be under the restraining influence of the home and the High School and not be thrown into a strange city among strange people and trying temptations. With a good, thorough training in languages, history, mathematics and the commercial branches, she can much more easily, through the influence of home friends, find employment in some of the offices at home rather than to have to go to a new field with the additional cost of board, clothing, etc. I maintain that in this particular a Commercial

Education, under these circumstances, is most helpful. There are many who will have the commercial education at any cost; it would better be among friends than among strangers.

Just a word in regard to the young lady who is to teach. It is my opinion that a good Commercial Education in connection with her High School course would much better fit her for teaching. From a personal experience of four years with forty teachers, I know that a large number of teachers have little or no practical knowledge of business matters. So many make an attempt to teach percentage, interest, etc., with little idea as to the real use of the matter taught. They teach the four cases all right, but fail in the chief thing, that is, in making it practical. A good, careful training under a practical teacher in Commercial Arithmetic, business law, business forms, etc., would make her work profitable. I have often found teachers, perhaps I should not say "teachers," teaching Partial Payments, working out long, intricate notes under the Vermont Rule for Partial Payments, without having required pupils to write a note. On questioning pupils in regard to the forms of the notes which these examples would require, at least 95 per cent. of them had no idea. Had such teachers had a good commercial training, these questions would all have a practical meaning. They can never have until it is required in their preparatory education. Of course, after years of experience, many of them will have gained some practical knowledge of business matters. The "experience" years are too valuable to be used in this way.

I am glad that so many of our college graduates are having to turn to the grades to teach. I wish that the Normal Schools would require a most thorough training in Commercial branches. I think that if some of the time spent in other branches were spent in busi-

ness forms, we should have teachers better fitted to do more practical work in our schools. Third. A good Commercial Education is beneficial to all, boys and girls alike, no matter what their calling in life may be. I care not whether he or she is to be a physician, minister, merchant, teacher, lawyer or a worker in any one of the many callings, not one hour spent in learning the practical things of life is wasted. The commercial work taken in connection with the other work of the school in which he or she may be educated, will bear good interest. In many cases more than a hundred fold. How many a boy would be saved from failing, or, at least, from many a temporal embarrassment, if he had had some knowledge of business matters; if he had had a working knowledge of business law; if there had been a better insight into business forms and usages! Many a young business man just starting into his work is handicapped by the experience which others have; he would be able to meet many of the questions which daily arise if he had had the book knowledge under a thorough, practical teacher. I realize as well as you that many a failure might be averted were there an earlier knowledge of these things.

I have spoken of the helpfulness of a Commercial Education to one who is to teach. Its usefulness cannot be estimated. So many of our children go no farther than the grades, alas, many do not go through them! that if they had had a teacher who could unconsciously, as well as consciously, occasionally have enriched the subject matter with practical suggestions and helpful ideas, they would have been so much better fitted to take up the work all too soon to be undertaken. Outside of a Commercial Education for purely commercial work, no one can be more helped than one who is to take up the honored work of teaching.



Many of our young ladies who enter college have no idea of entering the business life of the world, and to such a commercial education would be most helpful. They do not intend to make a practical use of their education, nor do they have to. An education in a good college, supplemented with travel abroad and helpful courses of lectures, is open to many of our young ladies. To such a commercial education in connection with the regular work of the High School would better fit them for the work in college. Business terms and forms, the ability to take down notes in shorthand for future reference, the comparing of the customs and laws of different countries, would be of material benefit.

Many of the latter class take prominent parts in the Women's Clubs of the land. Here it is often necessary to deal with the business side of the organization. The ones who are the best fitted will hold the more prominent places. Even here, to the ones who we might think need it the least, this practical education is of great importance. Had this practical education been available to the young ladies twenty-five years ago, they would sooner have entered into the work of the world.

While I am a classical student myself and believe most thoroughly in a classical education, I maintain that life to a great many will be fuller, richer, more useful to those about them if it is supplemented with a thorough understanding of the useful subjects taught in a good Commercial Course. While these are days of specialists, and I believe in this, it must be, with all the striving, an age of generalization, too. Men, generically speaking, must be able to advise others in more than one line. Men must know how to do things in order to be most successful. I regard *that* one the most successful, who not only knows how

to do a thing well himself, but is able to guide others into the ways of success, who is able to meet all men in the different walks of life and to speak the helpful word at the most opportune time. I know that he will be better able to do this if his education was laid on the firmest and broadest foundation possible.

Go to your work and be strong, halting not in your ways,  
Balking the end half-won for an instant dole of praise.  
Stand to your work and be wise—certain of sword and pen,  
Who are neither children nor Gods, but men in a world of men.

—Rudyard Kipling.

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## INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FROM THE STAND- POINT OF THE MANUFACTURER.

M. W. ALEXANDER,  
GENERAL ELECTRIC CO.,  
LYNN, MASS.

The industries of our country, especially in the mechanical trades, have grown wonderfully since 1893, when the nations of the world exhibited the products of their skill at Chicago and, thereby, gave a new impetus to the ingenuity and enterprise of the American people. The whole industrial life of America has, accordingly, undergone tremendous changes within the last decade. Specialization has become the established principle in all industries. Where, heretofore, an all-round artisan, by the skill of his hands performed the different operations which created the finished product,

today different machines, each designed for one particular operation, turn out the product in large quantities.

It would, therefore, appear that the need for the all-round skilled artisan had lessened. This, however, is not the case. The enormous expansion of modern industries demands a larger number of skilled workmen than formerly in spite of the advanced degree to which specialization has been carried. We must not lose sight of the fact, also, that the introduction of complicated special machinery calls for a new type of skilled artisan; one who possesses not only dexterity in his manual work, but also an understanding of the machine and the material worked upon, and one who knows how to repair the machine when it gets out of order.

When manufacturers began to realize that, through the process of specialization, they were enabled to use a proportionate larger number of unskilled and semi-skilled workers in the extension of their business, they paid less attention to the question of constantly renewing the supply of skilled workers, in consequence of which a scarcity of skilled labor has become more and more apparent in the last few years. In the mechanical trades especially, the scarcity has reached the point where the further development of American industries is seriously threatened if proper steps for relief are not taken promptly.

The problem which has thus been created by the changed industrial system is one that concerns not alone the manufacturer; it has become a problem of the State, which is charged with the duty of educating the children in such a manner that they may not only possess the instincts of good citizenship, but may also be enabled to become self-supporting members of the community. Manufacturers are taking hold of the

problem principally by reviving the apprenticeship system along lines which meet the new industrial conditions. In doing so they are partly bridging over the gap which exists between the equipment which the boy receives under the present school system and the equipment which modern industry demands of him. It is not sufficient, however, to bridge over the gap; the gap ought to be eliminated, and that is essentially a function of the school.

What causes the gap? A growing lack of respect for manual work and, therefore, a diminishing desire to learn trades and an inadequate training for those who wish to enter industrial life at an early age. The school must instill in the boys interest in and respect for manual work by emphasizing, more than they are doing now, the importance of hand work, especially in the lower grades of the schools. Greater numbers of boys will then be directed into the mechanical trades and will be prevented from filling poorly paid unskilled positions, thereby recruiting the army of the unemployed whenever a slight depression disturbs the economic conditions of the business world.

So, also, the educational system should accommodate itself more fully to the new industrial conditions. The efforts of manufacturers in industrial training must, after all, be looked upon as experiments only, highly important, though, as an immediate remedy, which the State ought to watch with a deep interest, in order to draw therefrom proper conclusions as a sound foundation on which to build the right system of industrial education.

One of these experiments is the Apprenticeship System of the General Electric Company at West Lynn, Massachusetts, which I shall briefly outline because it has been proved successful, and in some of its novel features contains elements of adequate industrial train-

ing. Under this system boys of at least 16 years of age with a grammar school education are indentured as apprentices in one of the many trades which are practiced at the works at West Lynn. Applicants have to serve a trial period of from one to two months, during which time they are under the close scrutiny of a man well qualified to observe the make-up of the boys as to mechanical ability and general disposition. Only those who, during the trial period, give promise of becoming good artisans with a fair expectation of being able to occupy, at some future time, leading positions in the factory organization, are allowed to sign the regular Apprenticeship Agreement. This agreement provides for a service of four years, during which time apprentices are paid fair wages along a progressive schedule and are given every consideration to learn the mysteries and arts of the particular trade to which they have been indentured. The wage schedule is set so that each boy can be self-supporting from the beginning, even during the trial period. In round figures, apprentices are paid during the trial period and during the first six months \$4.50 per week; during the second six months \$5.60 per week; during the second year \$6.70 per week; during the third year \$7.80 per week, and during the fourth year \$9.25 per week, with a cash bonus of \$100.00 at the successful termination of the apprenticeship.

The aim of the General Electric Company is not only to develop skilled machinists and tool-makers, carpenters and pattern-makers, iron, steel and brass moulders, instrument-makers and electrical workers, but also to develop a class of artisans from whom men may be chosen for leading positions in the factory, such as assistant foremen, foremen, master mechanics, and superintendents. To hold such positions requires more than the dexterity of the hand; a knowledge of

the practical sciences involved in the work and of the ways and means of conducting the work in a business-like manner becomes an essential part of the equipment.

The General Electric Company has, therefore, recognized the necessity of educational instruction along with the manual instruction in such a manner that the apprentices may apply every day in the factory what they learn in the study room. This happy co-relation of theory and practice cannot fail to produce satisfactory results, especially since the theory is explained in an eminently practical way and the practical work is conducted along educational lines.

The boys attend theoretical school during forty weeks in each year, twenty weeks constituting a term and two sessions of two and one-half hours' duration each being held per week. These sessions take place during working hours, at the present time in the latter part of the afternoon, and the apprentices are paid the same wages during the school hours that they would receive if they were working at the bench or at the machine. Those of the boys in whom, therefore, the commercial spirit predominates will be just as anxious to go to school as those who are really desirous of educational development.

The comparatively small amount of time devoted to instruction does not permit us to go very deeply into the subjects which we teach. In fact, a large part of the teaching is more or less a review of some of the Grammar School work, but applied to practical factory conditions. Our public schools have taught the boy a great amount of knowledge and have committed to his memory many a formula, but when it comes to the application of this knowledge and of these formulæ to practical uses, many a boy finds himself "up against it," because he has not acquired the faculty of inde-



pendent and logical thinking. Our review aims, then, to instill in the boy the habit of independent and logical thinking, but while it refreshes his memory on the elementary sciences of the Grammar School programme and teaches him the application of these sciences, it also gives him an insight into technology. He is made to become familiar with technical terms, technical processes, the materials used in the factory and the finished products manufactured.

All problems are of a concrete nature and deal with materials, apparatus or parts thereof, which are used in the factory. The teacher is obliged to hold in his hand, so to speak, the material, apparatus or part thereof of which he speaks and to explain briefly the nature and use of the object. There is no better aid to the understanding and no better help to the retentive memory than to demonstrate "ad oculos."

The course of study embraces mathematics, physics, technology and mechanical drawing.

*Mathematics* covers arithmetic and algebra, plane and solid mensuration and trigonometry.

*Arithmetic and Algebra* are taught alternately, as far as each process is concerned, beginning with the elementary processes in whole numbers, decimals and common fractions, and continuing through percentage calculations, problems in ratio, simple and compound proportion, square and cube root, leading on to the application of these subjects to useful formulæ. These formulæ are given to the boys as facts to be accepted for the present, but which will come up again later on in the teaching of physics. The alternating of Arithmetic and Algebra has proved an undoubted success, in that it makes the school work more interesting to the boy and calls into play his reasoning faculties right from the beginning.

*Mensuration* is dealt with similarly, in that it teaches straight lines and angles, planes in space and solids, like triangles and polygons and prisms, circles and cylinders, cones and spheres. The knowledge thus gained is applied to practical problems in figuring weights of machine parts and whole machines.

Only a short time is devoted to *trigonometry*, which deals principally with angular measures, the right and oblique triangles.

As stated before, only concrete examples applicable to factory conditions are given which, together with the method of teaching algebra and arithmetic alternately, keep the boys' interest in the school wide awake.

It is but a test of the boy's memory to ask him for the cubical contents of a cylinder one-half inch in diameter and twenty-five inches long, but it is an entirely different test if we put the same problem in the following manner:

"A machine shop is ordered to produce 35 steel pins, each of which is to be one-half inch in diameter by three-quarters inch long. The pins are to be cut from a long steel rod and the tool for cutting off will waste one-sixteenth inch material between each two pins. What will be the weight of the steel rod required?"

This is a problem which we meet in every-day factory life and which involves nothing else than plain multiplication and addition. It is simply a question of multiplying 35, the number of pins, by three-quarters inch, the length of each pin, and adding to it 34 times one-sixteenth inch, as the amount wasted by the cutting-off tool. The result will give us the length of the steel rod required, which must now be multiplied by the area of a one-half inch circle in order to obtain the proper cubical contents, which when multiplied in turn by the specific gravity of steel (a figure

which we give to the boy), will give the total weight of the steel rod.

Now, we could ask the boy who has this particular problem in hand what result he has obtained and tell him that he is wrong if his calculation does not give the proper figure. This procedure may create an attitude of antagonism to the teacher. We, therefore, hand the boy a pair of scales, by which he may check his own results. He will feel rather ashamed if the scales tell him that he is wrong and he will immediately recalculate the problem with the earnest desire to arrive at the correct figure. The boy has, so to speak, a greater confidence in the veracity of the scales than in the veracity of the teacher.

*Physics* covers mechanics, applied engineering, heat, magnetism and electricity.

*Mechanics* deals with elementary machines, such as simple and compound levers, inclined plane, wheel and axle, screw, pulley and wedge, and with the combinations of these. We deduct the general laws underlying elementary machines from experiments made on models and clinch the knowledge thus gained by the solution of practical problems involving the use of these elementary machines.

*Applied Engineering* deals with the review of mechanics and mathematics on problems which factory foremen have to solve, such as calculating proper gears to put on a lathe in order to obtain certain cutting speeds.

The teaching of *magnetism and electricity* is taken up in a similar way by laboratory experiments, from which the general laws are deduced. Our whole factory serves us as a big laboratory; this being, perhaps, a finer and more complete laboratory than any educational institution can boast of.

*Technology* in the beginning is an effort on our part

to correct some of the glaring defects, where such exist, in spelling and English composition. Unfortunately "steel" is too often spelled "steal." We acquaint the boys with the spelling of technical words and then instruct them to express themselves orally and in writing in a clear and concise manner. This is elaborated upon, when we dictate short essays on the properties and the uses of the different materials with which the engineer has to deal and the different apparatus which our Company manufactures. Occasionally, the boys are asked to write short compositions, explaining why certain materials ought to be used for the construction of certain machine parts and machines. Technology in the advanced class is given in the form of lectures by our engineers and shop foremen on such subjects as the care of machines, the principles of pattern-making, foundry work, the methods used in stock-keeping, etc.

A large portion of the time in school is devoted to *Mechanical Drawing*, which is considered a very important subject. First, a brief course in Free Hand Sketching is given; the art of free hand sketching of geometrical figures is not sufficiently developed in our schools, even in our higher schools of technical learning, although it is a very important equipment for anyone engaged in industrial pursuits, whether he is a skilled workman or a foreman, or occupies a position as an engineer or superintendent. Then follows a course in *Mechanical Drawing*, which includes instruction in descriptive geometry and teaches the proper handling of drawing and measuring instruments, the making of straight and curved lines, geometrical construction and orthographic projection. Then follows a course in *Machine Design*, where boys are given parts of machinery, such as bolts, screws, shafts, pulleys and pieces of like description, which

they are obliged to measure by means of calipers, and scales, and micrometers, in order to make the proper free-hand sketch with necessary dimensions. These free-hand sketches serve as the basis of making regular mechanical drawings with elevation, plane and cross-sectional views. The last end, from our standpoint, the most important part of mechanical drawing, deals with *Tool Design*. It teaches the ability to design the auxiliary tool equipment required for specific operations in the manufacture on a large scale. A flange coupling, for instance, contains four holes which may be drilled accurately and quickly by semi-skilled workmen if an appropriate jig or holder is applied. The boys who, by this time, have already had several years of shop experience are asked to design such a jig according to their own ideas. The designs produced indicate the individual mechanical ingenuity of the boys and are discussed by the teacher from the standpoint of good and bad features of design. This part of mechanical drawing is not and, for that matter, cannot very well be taught in the public schools, although a proper knowledge of it is of very essential assistance to a skilled journeyman, a foreman, superintendent or engineer.

In addition to these studies, we devote about half an hour per week in each class to what we term *Practical Talks*. We tell the apprentices of some of the daily occurrences of life which they have, heretofore, accepted as matters of fact without ever questioning the reasons for them and without being able, therefore, very often to understand these reasons. All boys know that they feel warmer the nearer they get to a hot stove; they also know that the Sun is the universal hot stove for the whole Earth, and yet they all realize that the temperature on the top of a mountain of 10,000 feet and more is so low that the snow will remain

the whole year round. How many of these young men of from 16 to 20 years of age can explain this seemingly complicated and yet so simple mystery? We tell them of the greater amount of moisture in the denser air which is nearer the surface of the Earth and make them see the whole problem in a new light.

After a boy has had explained to him a number of such examples, he will have been put in a frame of mind where almost unconsciously he will seek for the reasons of all that occurs.

This in the main covers our school programme, which is carried out by instructors selected from those of our own engineers, draughtsmen and foremen who have pedagogical ability. We select the teachers from our own staff because they know what our factory requires and can, therefore, impart this specific knowledge to the boys better than it could be done by professional teachers who are not engaged for at least part of their time in the actual work of our factory.

We bring thus the factory into the schoolroom, as we have also successfully brought the schoolroom into the factory, in the practical instruction which we give to the apprentices.

It is the usual practice in apprenticeship systems to assign the boy to one of the factory departments, in which the foreman or his assistants are supposed to teach him the particular work of the department. He is then transferred to another department for the purpose of learning the different kinds of work performed there. We soon realized that shop foremen and their assistants are very often not qualified to impart knowledge and, due to business conditions, very often cannot give the apprentices the opportunities that will lead to the quickest and best results. One department may be very busy and may, therefore, offer to the boys splendid opportunities, while another department,



due to productive requirements, may have only a small amount of work on hand of a kind which does not give the apprentices a really good chance.

In order to initiate all boys well into the trade, and especially in order to teach the practical work in the best manner, we have set aside a small shop in our big factory devoted entirely to the preliminary instruction of the apprentices. This Apprentice Training Room, which, I believe, is the best example of a Trade School, is presided over by a man who is eminently qualified by training and capacity to launch the boys upon the right course. He is an ingenious mechanic, who has himself served an apprenticeship and who takes a deep interest in boys and understands how to guide and instruct them properly. He has the opportunity, during the trial period, to study closely the boys' make-up, so that he may drop from the course all who do not display the qualities which are essential for a successful career. It is his duty to develop an inventive capacity in those who by nature are endowed with inventive minds and to arouse in the apprentices interest in and respect for manual work.

The Training Room contains representative machines, some of which are of the latest design and are modern up-to-date tools, while some are worn out old machines, which have been rescued from the scrap heap. It is understood and it is almost hoped that these old machines will break as soon as the apprentices try to perform work on them with a fair degree of speed. Such breakage, however, gives a splendid opportunity to instruct the boys in the repairing of machinery, which is the best instruction which can be given them, because it teaches presence of mind, self-reliance and the ability to do things. An apprentice should not wait for a new gear, if a tooth in an old gear breaks, but he should be able to apply the dentist's

art and insert a new tooth in the gear and make the wheels go around again without much loss of time. Some of the old machines have thus been repaired and repaired until today they have become good rivals of some of the new tools which we have bought direct from the tool manufacturer.

Every apprentice has first to enter the Training Room, where he is put on bench work and then on work on simple machines. After that he is advanced to work of a more difficult character on simple and then on more complicated machine tools, until after about two years' time he has sufficiently mastered the art so that he can be sent into the different factory departments to serve the last two years of his apprenticeship as a post-graduate course in the factory, where he may acquire greater skill and accuracy on a greater variety of work and the ability to meet emergencies as they arise.

All work in the Training Room is work of commercial value, which is of great psychological importance in the development of the apprentices, as it takes them out of the sphere of laboratory work and into that of real industrial life. It undoubtedly arouses a different zeal, whether a boy performs some work that is to be a plaything only or may even go into an exhibition case, or whether he manufactures some piece which has a useful function to perform in a machine.

We have about 75 apprentices in the Training Room with nearly double the number in the post-graduate course in the factory. Only one instructor with one assistant looks after the practical instruction in the Training Room. This small amount of supervision is made possible by our method of training the boys themselves for the functions of assistant instructors. When a young apprentice has thoroughly learned the turning of pulleys, for instance, he is, in most in-

stances, required to break in a new apprentice on this kind of work before he himself is allowed to be taught by a still more advanced apprentice how to bore pulleys. The apprentice, therefore, is pupil today and teacher tomorrow, then pupil again and then teacher once more. This procedure has a double advantage; the boy acting as teacher will put forth his very best effort to favorably impress his younger co-worker with the knowledge which he has already acquired, and the young recruit will not hesitate to ask his boy teacher questions which he would hesitate to ask the regular instructor. The boy instructor is educated step by step, so that he will become able to impart knowledge to others—a qualification found only in a very small percentage of otherwise skilled artisans—and the boy recruit sees, immediately, the possibilities of further development and advancement. During the last few weeks of their stay in the Training Room, some of the best apprentices act as regular assistants to the instructor looking after the discipline of the room, the proper way of handling orders and the general supervision of the work.

It is the policy of our Company to retain the graduated apprentices in our service and whenever a "Certificate of Apprenticeship" is handed to a boy at the termination of his apprenticeship course, he is given a substantial increase in his wages and is encouraged to remain as a full-fledged journeyman and in some cases even as an assistant foreman.

Now what suggestions does my experience in carrying out this experiment in industrial education lead me to make to this body of educational experts so that boys may be prepared more adequately for the industries, and that manufacturers may be relieved of the responsibility of the purely educational work that they have to undertake now? Whatever these suggestions

may be, we should bear in mind that they must be applicable to the great majority of boys who do not even finish the Grammar school.

First of all, teachers should make a greater effort to inculcate in the boys the habit of logical thinking. This may be brought about in the teaching of mathematics, physics and other sciences by selecting concrete problems drawn from the daily occurrences that surround the boys and preferably, even, borrowed from the industries located in the town or nearby. The habit of logical thinking may further be stimulated through exercises which teach the child to reason from effect to cause, and, vice versa, from cause to effect. Tell them every week of some of the matter-of-fact occurrences of life and help them step by step to find causes for them. If once the desire for knowing the "why" has been aroused, it will feed itself on its own achievements and continue to grow. The boys will then be trained to reason from effect to cause, which is only a preparation for the important ability of reasoning from cause to effect. It is one attainment to do things, but it is quite a different attainment to do things well with a full outlook upon the possible consequences.

Realize that the majority of children will seek employment in one of the industries of the city in which the school is located or the towns nearby. Make yourself acquainted, therefore, with these industries, so that you may select your problems in school in such a manner as to give them a local coloring which will, undoubtedly, appeal to the pupils. Arouse interest in and respect for manual work in all children, since our country is essentially a country of industrial achievements. For that purpose, take the children at least once a year into the factories of your town or nearby towns so that they may become impressed with the grandeur of industrial activity, and may learn to look

up to the man who makes the wheels go round. The impression gained by seeing a molten mass of iron and steel pour forth from a furnace or by observing a steam engine work with all its wonderful motions, will help to incite in the children a purpose in life. Many enter now into practical life without any aim whatsoever, except that of making money. Many in future will seek work in a machine shop, or a shoe factory, or a textile mill, because the early impression during a visit to the factory has aroused the desire for such work. Such boys and girls are undoubtedly better equipped right from the beginning to fight the battle of life successfully.

For similar reasons extend the manual training further down into the lower grades of the Grammar School and have the manual training work carried on by teachers who are well qualified for it by several years' training in practical life and a subsequent training in pedagogical work, without which they would not be able to transmit knowledge to the child in the proper way. Before we can offer industrial training in whatever form our school system may eventually adopt it, we must properly train industrial teachers. I, therefore, suggest that special departments be added to our Colleges and Normal Schools for the training of industrial teachers, departments which only those should be allowed to enter who have had some years of practical experience. Get into closer touch individually, and as an association, with manufacturers and employers in general, in order to find out what the rapidly changing industries demand of the boys, so that you may, by wisely changing your educational system from time to time, supply the demand. The United States will then not only be able to continue to lead in the world's industries, but even to distance other nations still more in the future than it has done in the past.

## INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

GUSTAF LARSSON.

PRINCIPAL, SLOYD TRAINING SCHOOL.

I have been asked to say a few words about Industrial Education in Secondary Schools. My own work and experience has been largely in the line of training teachers in Sloyd for the past eighteen years in Boston, under the patronage of Mrs. Quincy A. Shaw.

I feel that one's strength may be greater and more effective for good by not covering too large a field; hence we have concentrated our efforts upon the needs of the children of three upper Grammar grades. We have been told by wise educational investigators that the period of life represented in these grades is the most important one; that in which the hands should be employed as instruments for the training of the mind.

Consequently educational handwork of an effective kind should be an organic part of the school curriculum.

Another reason why educational manual training should be given just in these grades is the fact that the larger percentage of our children leave school while yet in the Grammar grades, and are thus entirely deprived of this effective motor training which they have a right to demand.

There may be a great deal of truth, as some one has said, that children learn everything nowadays in school, except that which they most need when they leave it. It is evident, however, that this branch of education should be expanded into the lower grades and into the High schools.



It is to the more advanced industrial training, such as would be suitable for High schools, to which I call your attention at this time.

By industrial education is generally meant the introduction of such work into schools as will enable the students to make a livelihood, particularly along the lines for which they have a natural aptitude.

Quite a few enthusiastic promoters of the so-called practical education feel that this can be done without necessitating the sacrifice of a student's general training. But the success or failure of such combined intellectual and industrial work, however, depends entirely upon one's point of view. If the chief emphasis is laid upon industries, skill, rapid progress, or the gaining of wealth, then the result will be a great loss, intellectually; but if we give our greatest attention to the student, and strive to use the best means for giving him a complete training of all his faculties, then we are sure of success, both intellectually and industrially.

I believe that we all agree that the best educated man is the one "whose intellect is trained to co-operate in the purpose of human progress." In other words, "one who consciously and deliberately holds an intellectual ideal of what he himself and other men are capable of becoming, and who has in some measure the knowledge and skill to put this ideal into practice."

The kind of industrial training with which I am acquainted is calculated to give an important part of general education, valuable equally to the future man of letters, the physician or the lawyer, as well as to the future tradesman and mechanic. It is that work which Prof. William James so well describes in his "Talk to Teachers," when he says, "The most colossal improvement which recent years have seen in secondary education lies in the introduction of the manual training schools; not because they will give us a people

more handy and practical for domestic life and better skilled in trades, but because they will give us citizens of an entirely different intellectual fibre."

Again he says, "Of the various systems of manual training, so far as woodwork is concerned, the Swedish Sloyd system, if I may have an opinion on such matters, seems to me by far the *best*, psychologically considered."

Sloyd is an educational agent that advances toward a definite aim, and bases its activities upon universal educational principles. It differs from other forms of manual training:

First, in aiming at ethical rather than at technical results, and at general organic development, rather than at special skill.

Second, in insisting upon the employment of professionally trained teachers instead of persons with merely mechanical skill.

Third, in advancing through rationally progressive exercises, where the tools are used to produce objects which are not only artistically good, but which are also of special interest through their serviceableness to the worker. Their appeal to the interest must be through the good purpose for which they are fashioned. In Sloyd the motive is of supreme importance.

Fourth, in striving after gymnastically correct working positions, and in encouraging the use of both the right and left sides of the body.

Fifth, in giving to each individual opportunity to progress according to his peculiar ability.

I believe that we should keep in mind this general educational idea in industrial training throughout the secondary schools, always adapting methods to the individual's need, rather than specializing or trying to further the prevailing industries in certain localities through the children in secondary schools.

Perhaps it would be safe to say that very few boys and girls have any definite idea about their future calling before the ages of 17 or 18 years.

As for my own experience, I did not know what profession I should enter before the age of 18, though I felt quite sure, however, what occupation I would *not* choose. Because of this lack of a definite aim for the future, we must give to the boys and girls a preparation which will be of value to them in whatever field they enter.

The education of the schools must supply an element that was not so much needed during the early years of our national existence, for the primitive *farm* life then furnished a training that is lacking in our present mode of living. A large part of our population has exchanged outdoor life of muscular effort for indoor and sedentary work of the brain. This is having its necessary effects upon our health and vigor. "Health comes in through the muscles, but flies out through the nerves." Increase of wealth has diminished the *necessity* of and the *inclination* to manual labor. Yet the boy and girl of today must be educated to meet a nervous and physical strain entirely unknown to our ancestors. They suffer for the training which quickened the senses, which gave true eyes, steady nerves and hands, as well as strong muscles, and which also developed that sense of responsibility, self-respect and independence which is the outcome of work recognized by children as useful.

A new responsibility is thrust upon the school. It must compensate for the loss of the farm training, or both individual and state will suffer. It must meet the issue by physical and manual training, for it can no longer content itself with giving only a "bookish and wordy education."

I once attended a large gathering of school super-

intendents when the interesting question came up as to how many were born in the country and had had the opportunity in their boyhood to attend to the various duties connected with farm life. It was found that a surprisingly small per cent. of these men were born in the cities. Statistics could easily be obtained, I think, to prove that most educational leaders as well as leaders in large business enterprises are men whose early training has been gained largely through healthy, physical work, rather than by cramming book knowledge at the school bench for the sake of passing an examination or getting a degree.

The High School curriculum is overcrowded with studies that demand so much mental and nervous energy from the students, that many of them become total physical and nervous wrecks.

Several times during the last year I have been visited by parents having girls in the High School, asking if I would take their daughters into the wood-working classes, because the physicians advised physical work.

We know that the proper development of a child is like that of a plant—slow and orderly. If we are hurrying this orderly growth we are producing poor results. Herein lies the great danger in technical education; processes are often hurried in order to get a speedy and showy result. The goal to be reached is purely *material gain*, rather than the thorough development of the child's faculties. Labor-saving contrivances and machinery are introduced rather for the sake of production than to utilize the student's physical and mental powers.

The typical manual training schools of America as they are organized at present may be very valuable, but they do not fulfill the need of the people, either educationally or industrially. Why? Because only a

small percentage of the children of High School age comes under their influence. If we maintain the idea that manual training of some kind, at the most favorable period of child life, is an absolute essential for a complete development of our children, then it is evident that *every* child should be given an opportunity.

Allow me, right here, to make a practical suggestion. Let the present manual training High Schools be converted into vocational schools for children over 17 years of age, and establish a manual training laboratory in every High School building as an organic part of the school curriculum.

It is interesting to read the several reports from manual training schools, giving statistics as to the various kinds of work the graduates enter upon, and what important business enterprises they represent. Presumably, these reports represent the direct influence of the manual training schools, but we must admit that other schools and influences may have added something to the strength and power of the individual.

The Kindergarten, for example, may have as much right to feel that it has laid the foundation for the future railroad president and the successful business man, as the technical schools and colleges. Consequently, no one knows what school or what training has had the greater influence for best citizenship.

Much has been said about the influence of well-lighted and well-ventilated schoolrooms; about having them attractive and orderly; still we all agree that the influence of tactful and sympathetic teachers in all branches of training is by far one of the greatest educational influences. Teachers whose chief interests and thoughts center about the welfare of the pupil; who, like the Great Teacher, please not themselves, but do all in their power to help in uplifting humanity.

It has been said that we Americans have progressed faster in wealth than in wisdom. In spite of the speed and competition in industrial supremacy, which is also apt to enter into educational business, we must still believe that the greatest hope for our prosperity as a nation, as well as for that of other countries, is to take proper care of the growing generation, and to give them the best schools with the best and most sympathetic teachers the country can produce.



## Department of School and Library.

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### OPENING REMARKS.

GEO. S. GODARD, STATE LIBRARIAN, HARTFORD, CONN.

(READ BY S. C. WILLARD.)

Fellow-Workers and Friends:

More than three-score years and ten have passed since our fathers came together and held the first meeting of the American Institute of Instruction. Many have been the topics considered and often warm the discussion.

While their aims, their ambitions and their work remain with us, they have passed on to other fields, leaving to us their problems so well begun. But the surroundings, requirements, facilities and life of their day have passed with them and their little red school-house. Our problems and duties belong to our day and must be met and solved by us. The present day industrial and commercial life has become so strenuous and absorbing that in our haste and devotion to it we have little time to properly consider the many important matters upon which we are called to act. Our busy life has drawn us to the once distant parts of the earth so frequently that we have unconsciously absorbed something of the spirit, life and civilization of these distant lands, which is being unconsciously more and more incorporated and mirrored in our life and civilization. All through our land this industrial renovation and permeation have been silently and unconsciously modernizing us to such an extent that we are astonished when brought face to face with the facts.

Ours are epoch-making days—in fact, each day seems an epoch in itself, so fast are events being shaped. Communities are no longer left to themselves and their own problems. Our population is ever going and coming, taking old ideas and customs and bringing new ones.

The village industries and local conditions of our fathers have been largely snuffed out by our modern industrial system, and all things changed. Our fathers knew nothing of life in the age of rapid transit, nor death in the age of bacteria. Theirs were largely local problems; ours are more general and yet more specific. Our problems are world-wide and require the combination of the world's best and most practical minds for their best solution.

While it may be true, generally speaking, that the more free public libraries, public schools and colleges a state and community has the better, if they are alive and doing their work, yet I am inclined to believe that a smaller number both of libraries and of schools, centrally located, well supported, with a live staff and an up-to-date delivery, will better serve a larger territory than several smaller ones more widely scattered, which are poorly supported, poorly equipped and below a reasonable standard. Our central libraries, however, should be reinforced by a series of larger libraries from which special books may be borrowed as needed, just as our public schools should be supplemented by a series of higher and specialized institutions to which those prepared and so desiring may go. By this community arrangement, those seeking are more quickly and more pleasantly and better served, while those responsible for administration are able to accomplish the desired ends with a minimum of expense for staff and equipment.

While it may be true, also, that many of our libraries

resemble amusement centers, furnishing, as some of them do, mostly fiction and that not always of the highest and most encouraging kind, yet there is certainly a growing feeling that the first and principal function of a library is instruction—not mere entertainment. Gradually—but I believe surely—the reference value of the library is coming to be appreciated, and the more its value is realized the more provision will be made for this department. I believe the day is not far distant when our system of libraries—still in the process of evolution—will become so interwoven in the life and work of our system of schools and education, that the doctor, the lawyer, the merchant, the mechanic, all callings, will feel at home in our several libraries after leaving school, and will successfully look to them for practical and helpful assistance in their several lines of work.

I do not mean to infer that the reference department or value of the library will supersede the entertaining side—for we need story books—but rather that our libraries will rise to the occasion and aided by a system of exchange meet the demands made upon them by our modern, practical scholarship.

Says J. A. Langford: "The only true equalizers in the world are books; the only treasure-house open to all comers is a library; the only wealth which will not decay is knowledge; the only jewel which you can carry beyond the grave is wisdom. To live in this equality, to share in these treasures, to possess this wealth, and to secure this jewel may be the happy lot of everyone. All that is needed for the acquisition of these inestimable treasures is the love of books."

As I have already intimated, I believe National conventions like schools and libraries are here to stay. They are necessary to the proper understanding and development of any line of work which extends

throughout the length and breadth of our land, and where the success and perfection of the entire work depends upon the efficiency and faithfulness of each individual official connected therewith. As a rule, too, I think we may say that public officials have not always been slow in accepting and adopting suggestions and requests made by National associations along lines over which they have control. And yet, while much has been accomplished, there will always be much to demand attention.

In the selection of subjects and speakers for this meeting, effort has been made to select timely topics and have them presented by members from separated fields of work. While no particular ones have been asked to discuss the several papers, it is hoped and expected that all will feel free and inclined to add to or question any paper or report presented.

Looking forward to a successful session and trusting that we shall all return to our several posts of duty refreshed and encouraged and feeling that it has been good for us to have been here, and wishing our association continued prosperity, I invite your attention to the several papers prepared for us.

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## THE WORK OF THE PROVIDENCE PUBLIC LIBRARY WITH THE CITY SCHOOLS.

WILLIAM E. FOSTER,  
LIBRARIAN OF THE PROVIDENCE PUBLIC LIBRARY.

The brief record which follows is an account of co-operative work which has been done under many disadvantages, and yet which offers some unusually interesting features.

The Providence Public Library was opened to the public in 1878, but no Children's Department was established until the opening of the present building in 1900. From the first, however, there has been as large a measure of co-operation as the conditions would allow. Every one who is familiar with work of this kind knows how largely its success depends on the personal interest of individuals, on both sides; and certainly in Providence we have been most fortunate in the teachers who have from year to year shown a sympathetic interest in the matter. Twenty-eight years is a long period in the history of any institution, and in our case some of those who are now beginning to be most active in the work of co-operation, owe their original interest in it to the inspiration communicated by some teacher of noteworthy powers and broad sympathies, who is no longer engaged in teaching.

Some of the earlier measures of co-operation include the sending of children to the library with a note from the teacher to look up some special subject; the preparation and manifolding of selected lists of books at the library, and the distribution of them among the schools; and also the visiting of the school-houses by the librarian for the purpose of meeting the teachers or of speaking to the children. But some of the serious disadvantages encountered during these very years were the cramped quarters of the library, making it impossible for the children to work to advantage on their special subject, without interrupting older readers, and the meagre supply of books for the use of the children.

There have been noteworthy instances among the teachers, of untiring efforts given to the cultivation of reading habits among their children. In twelve successive years (from 1880 to 1891), Mr. James M.

Sawin, the Principal of the Point Street Grammar School, was accustomed to publish his annual lists of good reading for boys and girls, with valuable annotations. Towards the end of this period, an edition of 20,000 of these lists was distributed annually. At one of the meetings of the Massachusetts Library Club, in 1895, the extremely successful efforts of this teacher to awaken a love of good literature in his pupils were described in detail.

While each of the High and Grammar schools was supplied with a small collection of reference books, there were developed in some of the school buildings excellent collections of books for general reading. To a former Superintendent of Public Schools, the late Horace S. Tarbell, and to his assistant, Mrs. Rhoda A. Esten, much of the credit for this interest must be given.

At this time the Public Library would have been glad to send books in large lots to the schools (as it does at present), but it was unable to do so. In the absence of this aid, Mrs. Esten not only encouraged the gathering of these Grammar school libraries, but gradually brought together an admirable collection of books in the Superintendent's office for the teachers to consult. The Public Library showed its co-operation by preparing a useful catalogue of their collection, and printing the catalogue in its *Monthly Bulletin* in 1898. The Public Library also responded to the increasing demands of the schools, for more than one book at a time, by providing a special "school card," on which several books could be taken at once, for use in connection with school work. During the publication of the "*Monthly Bulletin*" also, in the years immediately preceding the opening of the present building, a separate department was set aside in that publication for the "Books for teachers and



pupils." In this appeared reference lists of additions and a considerable variety of other material of interest to the schools. It is needless to say that the prospect of a new building was welcomed with especial pleasure for the opportunity which it would give of doing better justice to this co-operative work. In consequence, the trustees and the architect, as well as the librarian, put forth their best efforts in developing those features of the building which would subserve these uses. The result is a very convenient and attractive set of rooms.

The Children's Department (to quote from a recently printed description) comprises two inter-connecting rooms, known as the Children's Reading Room and the Class Room. The books are arranged around the four walls of the former, on low book-cases, only five feet from the floor, so as to be within the children's reach. There are only about 6,600 volumes in all, and yet there were issued from this room in 1904 more than 42,000 volumes. Two of the four sides of the room contain children's stories, and these are arranged alphabetically on the shelves, by authors, thus enabling the children to go directly to whatever book is desired. The other two sides contain the other books, arranged by classes, such as history, art, nature, etc. In one corner is placed the card-catalogue, which is constantly in use. Some of the departments are kept pretty thoroughly drained, as, for instance, the fairy stories. Of these, there are over 300 volumes, yet it is rare to find more than a half-dozen of them in at one time. From the very great pressure of use in the Children's Department, together with the inability of the Library to respond to the demand in any adequate manner, resulted the organization in 1905 (by outside friends of the Library) of the "Children's Library Helpers."

So far as known, no similar organization has been formed elsewhere, and its development here in Providence is an interesting and delightful testimony to the hold which the Children's Department has always had upon the affections of the community.

The "Educational Department" of the Public Library is fortunately situated on the same floor of the building as the Children's Library. This contains about 8,000 volumes. A separate card catalogue is at hand on one of the tables which are placed here and there in the room, in order to facilitate the study of its collections. This room is known as the "Barnard Club Library," and contains, besides the Library's own collection of books on education, the nucleus of a valuable collection begun by the Barnard Club, an association of Rhode Island teachers. It is of course unnecessary to explain at a meeting held within the limits of Connecticut, that the distinguished educator from whom this club derived its name was the late Hon. Henry Barnard, a man who at one time in his life rendered great service as the Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island, besides rendering similar service to the State of Connecticut and to the National Government. One of the collections of books on the shelves of this department is composed of "antiquated" text books, intended to facilitate the comparative study of methods of teaching, on the part of the teachers. Elsewhere, however, will be found a collection of those text books which are in use in the public schools of the city at any given time (about 320 volumes in all). These have been deposited in the building by order of the School Committee. A list of eight educational journals is subscribed for by the Public Library, and purchases of current books are made as extensively as the library's funds will permit. Members of the Barnard Club, however, are at

present engaged in raising a fund of \$1,000, the income of which may be used annually by the library, thus enabling it to respond more adequately to the demands of teachers in this field.

The coming of the present Superintendent of Public Schools, Mr. Walter H. Small, was nearly coincident with the occupation of the present building and with the new impetus which has been given to all co-operative measures. Briefly stated, some of the features of the system of co-operation are as follows: Each year, in accordance with dates assigned in advance by the Superintendent of Public Schools, the two upper classes of each of the sixteen grammar schools pay a visit to the library, in company with one of their teachers. They are received in the Lecture Room (on the same floor with the Children's Library) by Mrs. Root, the children's Librarian, who gives them a familiar talk of about forty minutes. To one of these classes (the "8 A" grade) she explains the processes connected with the making of a book—the printing, proof-reading, binding, etc. This familiar talk almost invariably has the effect of inspiring the boy or girl with more of a respect for the book, as something to be handled carefully, especially as Mrs. Root aims to secure, through other methods, habits of cleanliness on the part of the children who are to handle the books. Later, these same children make a visit to the library as members of the "8 A" grade, and this time Mrs. Root explains to them the various features of a book, such as the title-page, the table of contents, the index, the introduction, etc., also the use of reference books, such as dictionaries, cyclopædias, etc., and the use of the card-catalogue. The black-board is very skillfully brought into requisition, not only to show the varying forms of entry in the catalogue (author, title, and subject), and the way

in which they are put upon a catalogue-card, but also some of the other phases of reference books and their use. At the same time, these children are shown about the library, supplied with cards at the Registration Desk, and, in short, "introduced" to the library in such a way as to make an intelligent use of the library in future (on their part) more than probable. Later in the school year comes the time when the class is about to graduate, some of the members entering one of the high schools and some going at once into active life. It is probably true that at such a time as this, the tendency with some of these pupils would be to graduate *from* the use of the Children's Department, without at the same time graduating *into* the use of the main library. At this time, therefore, the librarian himself makes a personal visit to each of these sixteen grammar schools, these dates also being assigned in advance by the Superintendent of Public Schools. In the course of a ten-minute talk to these pupils, the librarian gives them such suggestions in regard to the resources of the main library, and the bearing which these resources have on their future studies and work, as will be specially useful to them; and here again the probability is strong that a large percentage of the pupils will act on the suggestions. This view of the case, moreover, is corroborated by the experience and observation of the last three or four years. In other words, the managers of the library may feel that, whatever may be the degree of intelligence with which the adults of today are using its resources, it is training up a race of future readers who will use the library to the best advantage. The system, as a whole, is thus characterized by Mr. Walter H. Small, the Superintendent of Public Schools, in one of his annual reports: "Through the kindly efforts of Librarian Wil-

liam E. Foster and Mrs. Root of the Children's Department, unique work has been done in this city in bringing the schools and the library in closer relations." (Report of the Providence School Committee for the year 1902-1903), p. 54. Compare also p. 65-67). Other features, however, are included, such as are usually met with in a scheme of school and library co-operation, as, for example, the purchase of duplicates in large quantities for the use of schools, and the sending of books to the schools. Regular deliveries of books, in large quantities, are made to the various school buildings, the expense of transportation being borne by the School Department; and the dates in these, as in the other instances, are assigned by the School Superintendent. In addition to the above, it should be said that each teacher is entitled to a special card on which ten or more books may be issued, strictly in connection with school work.

It is true that there is no one of the features enumerated above, which could not have been made more effective if larger funds had been available. Most important of all, however, is the fact that there has been a very vital interest underlying these co-operative efforts, on both sides, and that this has very largely accounted for the success of these measures.

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## DUTY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS TO TRAIN TEACHERS IN LIBRARY WORK.

W. I. FLETCHER,  
LIBRARIAN OF AMHERST COLLEGE.

I find myself under some embarrassments in appearing before you today. The name given to my subject in the program is not quite to my liking, as I am not

here for the purpose of teaching normal schools their duty in any sense of fault-finding with what they have done or are doing. I would rather have called the subject the need of some library training in normal schools. If this need really exists and is brought home to the authorities of the schools there is no doubt that they will see their duty and do it.

Another, and a more serious embarrassment, is in the fact that since I accepted this appointment, there has appeared the report of the Special Committee of the National Educational Association on this very topic, a most complete and admirable report, as might be expected of this Committee, with Dr. James H. Canfield at its head. I have to confess that I was not aware that this report was impending, and now that it has come out, I feel like excusing myself in the language of the "double" in Dr. Hale's story, "So much has been said, and on the whole so well said, that I will not occupy more time."

But this report is so very full and complete, and goes into the subject with so much of practical detail, that there may yet appear to be room for a brief statement along the same general lines, endeavoring to bring out and enforce the main principles underlying the movement for a further unification of the libraries and the schools. And it has seemed to me that nothing could be better than to view the subject somewhat historically and, if possible, recognize its evolutionary aspects and so judge its future by the past with its foreshadowings of things which now seem ripe for consummation.

Thirty-five years ago I was for four years in charge successively of two very popular free libraries in the manufacturing towns of Waterbury, Conn., and Lawrence, Mass. I do not remember that during that time anything was ever said of any special relations be-



tween the public library and the schools. In fact, a paper prepared by me in 1874 on "Public Libraries in Manufacturing Communities," contained no allusion whatever to the schools.

No doubt efforts were already made sporadically to utilize the public libraries in school work. I believe such efforts in Boston and Worcester, certainly in Quincy, Mass., antedated the period of which I am speaking. But it is significant of the slight extent to which this movement had then progressed that the encyclopedic report on public libraries in the United States, issued by the U. S. Bureau of Education in 1876, containing in its 1,200 pages, 39 chapters, by many writers on all phases of library work and history (my own paper just referred to being among them), had no chapter relating to the schools. In another chapter which I had the honor of contributing, on "Public Libraries and the Young," a few lines are devoted to the "one or two ways in which the school may work together with the library in directing the reading of the young." I believe such a co-operation is nowhere else suggested in the volume.

With the establishment in 1876 of the American Library Association, nothing seems to have more quickly attracted attention as a theme of discussion among librarians, or an end to be sought by co-operative work, than this idea of drawing together the library and the school. The first volume of the *Library Journal*, the organ of the Association, contained in its number for August, 1877, a report of an address by Charles Francis Adams on the use which might be made of the public library in the schools, especially the high and upper-grade grammar schools. This address marked the beginning of a new era for school work. The idea to which he gave, probably, the earliest and most cogent expression, has constantly

gained adherents, until now there are few places where the library and the school co-exist without being in more or less effective co-operation.

I say "more or less"; "ay, there's the rub!" the "less" is so much more in evidence than the more! May I take a few moments to sketch rapidly what seems to me a practicable and efficient co-operation of these two agencies, and then I am sure the moral will be obvious, that the Normal School has something to do to make such results common.

Modern education is not so much a matter of three R's as of three H's. It aims to train Head, Hand and Heart. Time was when only the head was much thought of in our common schools. The storing of the mind with knowledge was regarded as the one object, with perhaps some incidental reference to the disciplining of the powers, and the teacher's province was too largely that of assigning lessons, hearing them recited, and maintaining order. Within the memory of many of us, a great change has come over our educational system. The advent of science studies and of manual training,—too often thought of as so much addition to the school curriculum,—marked the incoming of a new spirit and method. The packing away of knowledge in the mind, like so much dead material, gives way to the better process of developing the powers not only of intellect, but of hand and eye and other organs and capacities. The school trains the pupil not simply to know, but to do. Manual training means, not showing the pupil how to do certain mechanical work, but infusing into him the spirit of work, awakening the creative instinct, teaching thoroughness and care and skilfulness in the handling of materials. To the boy or girl life is lived largely in the physical. It is too soon to lay heavy burdens on the merely mental powers, which are but begin-

ning to find themselves. It now seems strange that we waited so long before giving a place in our school work to this training of the physical as the basis of the mental and the æsthetic.

So much for the head and the hand. What are we doing for the heart? Perhaps this is a more significant question than we think. We certainly should agree that the secularizing of education cannot be carried so far as to exclude the heart from its benefits without dehumanizing it. The fallacy is very current that the state, which is the source of our education, cannot undertake to teach morals or religion, and that, therefore, our education cannot aim to reach the heart. Doubtless it is difficult to provide ways in which state-supported schools can teach ethics unless ethics can be made absolutely formal and divorced wholly from religion. But not by such ethics or by any formal teaching of morals can the youthful heart be reached. Wiser counsels are already prevailing. Our schools are beginning to be places in which refinement and good taste make their powerful appeal to the young soul. Works of art decorate their walls and speak to the responsive nature of children in a language to which it answers sympathetically, though to some extent unconsciously; flowers in the school windows, flower-beds and a lawn in front of the schoolhouse, make their gracious appeal to that which is best in the pupil, while the national flag flying over the building calls out patriotic and heroic feeling. Music and drawing are taught and often so taught that latent powers, both of appreciation and of expression, are aroused and set to work. "Discipline" in the school-room is to some extent being supplanted by instinctive good behavior, resting on mutual good-will and affection between teacher and scholar. The wise philosophy of Froebel, which finds expression in the cheer

and happiness of the Kindergarten, has quite largely invaded the lower grades of our public schools and lays its potent hand of calm on the turbulence and rudeness that were characteristic of the common schools of the last generation and still mark too many of those of today.

It is along the lines of development and uplift which I have indicated that the public library comes in to aid the school. To begin with the ordinary routine teaching in the school, it is being found effective beyond any other instrument, in delivering that work from text-book routine and irksomeness.

It enables the teacher to substitute for the reading book, a succession of readings from wisely selected books representing the best writers of all ages; something of this sort has come in very largely through the supplementary reading now furnished so generally to the schools. But a judicious use of the public library enables the teacher to go much farther afield and to make the reading lessons to some extent an introduction to a course in literature.

Grammar or "language" lessons, by the same method, are broadened out into something like a sympathetic study of style and rhetoric, reduced, of course, to the lowest terms for the youngest children, but with skillful handling made vital and interesting even to them.

Geography, which was the bane of my own school days, is also vitalized and humanized. I visited a room in the 9th grade in Amherst the other day, and found an illustration of this. The class were studying Africa, and on the teacher's desk were about a dozen books on Africa drawn by the teacher from the town library. These were attractive books, for the most part illustrated, but among them I noted Prof. Henry Drummond's "Tropical Africa," usually regarded as a

grown people's book. The pupils had been reading in these books, taking them to their seats as they had spare time, and to their homes when they wished. To them Africa had become a real living country, and Stanley, Livingstone and Kitchener were so associated with it that the youthful ardor of hero-worship, so easily kindled, had attached itself to the land and given to rivers and mountains and deserts a charm which no school geography could quite compass.

When it comes to arithmetic, the use of the library books is not so obvious. Nor do I happen to have heard of any special way in which the public library has been found effectively helpful in teaching mathematics. Still, it is not difficult to suggest that fresh interest could be aroused in Colburn's Mental Arithmetic (if that is the text-book used) by readings from the life of Zerah Colburn and stories of other prodigies of mathematical genius. As the different arithmetical processes are considered, interesting bits of astronomy, physics, and even history will be found associated with them, and the teacher who is willing to give a little time out of school to the search for books thus suggested will be richly rewarded by acquiring a good deal of knowledge new to herself and perhaps an enthusiasm in regard to mathematics that she never dreamed could be hers, and which will be imparted to her class in spite of her, greatly to the advantage of both teacher and class.

It goes without saying that a fairly good town library with some scores of the best and most attractive books on birds, flowers, ferns, astronomy, geology and natural history will be a powerful help and incentive, in all science studies. In fact, no science study can be better for the grades below the High school than the reading, under the teacher's guidance, of books from the library. The reading is best con-

ducted, if divided between selected portions read by the teacher to the school and other portions read by the pupils in school or at home. All these books should be available for taking home when the pupils desire. It is a mistake to lay out a course and require all or any pupils to follow it. It is the first principle of advantageous reading, especially in books of this class, that pleasure should be taken in the reading, and it is generally not difficult to find some avenue of approach to each young mind; with one, it will be a love for flowers, with another a passion for pets, with another an interest in the stars or in different kinds of stones or in fishing and hunting. A variety of books selected with reference to all these known or guessed at predilections should be in the schoolroom when the time comes for a few weeks of science, and the task of guiding the young readers need not be a difficult one.

If the library may be thus useful in connection with the head work of the school, it may certainly bring its aid to the manual training as well. Most boys are rather fond of books on mechanics and on machinery and on inventions. When I was a boy, such a thing as manual training was not dreamed of in school. But when I remember how I enjoyed reading the life of George Stephenson, how like a romance seemed the tale of his first locomotive, "The Rocket," I can well believe that it would have been a powerful incentive to me in any intelligent hand-work to which I might be put. So with books on the history of the steam-engine, on electric motors, on flying machines, and lives of the great engineers, bridge-builders and mechanics. The romance of watch-making, the story of the great clock of Strasburg, or of the famous 999 engine on the New York Central,—what could be more fascinating to the mind of the average boy or



what could sooner impart zest to the work of the manual training department? And for girls, books are not lacking. Those on needlework and laces, on costume, on domestic customs are numerous and attractive; and there are lives of Florence Nightingale, of Miss Willard, of Mary Lyon, and of many other women "who did" some good, true work of skill or of trained workwomanship.

All this is so simple and obvious that it almost goes without saying when the underlying principle is stated. And if the schools in our towns, if your schools, my teacher friends, are not working in these ways and getting this aid from the public libraries, it is largely on account of your lack of training along these lines.

But I must take a few minutes to speak of the library as aiding the school in its approach more or less distinct, and more or less recognized as a legitimate part of its work, to the heart of the pupil. Lest I should be misunderstood, let me make a little plainer than I have what I mean by the heart as distinguished from the head. In a word, I mean the power of being, as distinguished from the power of knowing or the power of doing. As I have before intimated, it is evident that by the very genius of education, as revealed and expounded by such men as Froebel and Thomas Arnold and Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, we are irresistibly led always to seek something higher and deeper than the art of knowing or the art of doing. Somewhat blindly we feel around for ways of getting at the springs of being in our pupils. No true teacher is content to be in a relation with pupils other than that of mutual love and confidence. Nor can such a teacher rest satisfied while low or mean or vicious traits of character manifest themselves in the school. A flagrant moral break-down in a pupil in school or after graduation, discounts and renders

nugatory whatever may seem to have been accomplished in intellectual training. The teacher whose character is not above suspicion is not tolerated. Intellectuality, smartness, may pose for a brief while at the teacher's desk, but without character, without that zeal for the formation of character which is a *sine qua non* in an educator of youth, no teacher can long hold his place with honor and respect. What I am trying to enforce is that we do allow a large place in all our thought of a school for the moral element. I pass rather lightly over the æsthetic because I prefer to consider that as included in the moral. Since hearing a good orthodox theological professor say in a sermon, "Good taste is religion," I do not trouble myself to find a place for the æsthetic outside the moral. So I place the work of art in the schoolroom, the flower in the window, the flag overhead, the Bible on the teacher's desk, the heart within the teacher, in the one category of things whose mission is to the heart of the pupil.

With this exposition of my meaning in speaking of education as aiming at the heart, you will be prepared I am sure for me to say that this department of school work is the one in which the public library may prove itself, has proved itself in many places, the most efficient aid to the school. The great interest now taken in literature in the school as manifested by the discussions at our national and other educational meetings, especially by the formation of the Library Department of the National Educational Association, and by the holding of such a session as this, centers in this thought that in a library, properly availed of, the school finds its one means of redeeming education from absorption in that which is practical and sordid. This was the inspiration of the great movement for school libraries which sprung up fifty years ago. Not

that books might be provided to help in the teaching of geography and history and the other branches of study, but that the higher nature of the pupil might be reached by the appeal of books of power as distinguished from books of knowledge,—this was the keynote powerfully struck by Horace Mann in his advocacy of the district-school library.

The failure of the school library system and the substitution of the town library is only a phase of the movement inaugurated by DeWitt Clinton in New York, Horace Mann in this State, and Henry Barnard in Rhode Island and Connecticut, which movement was and is one for the spiritualizing of education. What the district school library could at best do imperfectly, the town library should accomplish much more efficiently, in bringing the pupil into contact with the books which represent the best thoughts and the best feelings of the world's great authors. The advantages which the public library has over the district school library are chiefly two: it has a librarian more or less skilled in books and able to take care of them, and it has a much larger range and better selection of books. It can send to the schools successive lots of books of superior quality and attractiveness, with a constant sprinkling of new publications and fresh bright copies of books which have become old and worn.

Let there be a clear conception of the object in view and the details of management will be easily worked out or learned from others who have already worked them out. This object is two-fold. First, it is to create the reading-habit, to foster bookishness. A great boon this to a child,—one of well-nigh incalculable value.

Bookishness is not a very pretty word, but it expresses what I mean better than any other that I can

think of. By it I mean an easy familiarity with books, some knowledge of the technicalities connected with them, which will enable one to understand the distinction between a book, a volume, and a copy, and some skill in handling them, in finding a given article in an encyclopedia, for example. I also mean such a smattering, as free contact with a library will give a child, of knowledge of authors and what they have written; also, a certain fondness for books which will lead a person going into a room where there are books to want to handle them and look into them, and which will enable one—this is a very important point in these days—to resist the seductions of the newspaper and the magazine in their demand for all one's reading time. This bookishness (can you give me a better word?) will grow up with and in a child who is in daily contact with good books, especially under the influence and contagion of an enthusiastically bookish teacher. (And no influence of the library can be better than that exerted on the teachers in making *them* bookish.)

But I said the object of placing these library books in the school is two-fold. Not only should the habit of reading be formed and a certain bookishness stimulated, but there should be an intelligent direction of the reading of pupils on the part of teachers, to the end of the cultivation of good taste and ultimately the formation of character under the influence of the best books. Saying something of this kind to one of our professors the other day, he remarked, "Then the teacher should be an expert in books." Yes, that is what is wanted. It is beginning to be felt that the teacher's training is not complete without a course not in "English literature," or in literature in general, but in books—in a certain sense in bibliography.

I said at the beginning that I thought the moral

would be obvious, that the Normal School must take cognizance of the public library and its value to the school. If the advance in educational lines has been such as I have indicated, and if parallel with that advance, the public library has been developed to the point of meeting quite completely the demand for literature and art (the limitations of time have prevented my referring to pictures from the library used in school work—a most important phase of the subject)—is not the logic irresistible that the teacher must be an “expert in books”? By one more step of the same logic, this expertness must be acquired in the Normal School. The five years’ average school age of the American child is too short for any of it to be lost while inexperienced teachers are learning the art of teaching while practising it. This is what our Normal School system means. And we claim that the needed expertness in books lays upon the Normal School the necessity of such training, largely of a laboratory character, through the use and handling of an excellent general and miscellaneous library, administered in a thoroughly expert way, and with a reasonable amount of class-room work and lectures.

Would it not seem absurd on the face of it, if the Normal School give a larger share of attention to making the teacher expert with the tools for the hand, than with those for the head and heart? And yet we see them on every hand thoroughly equipped for manual training, but with little provision for book expertness. May the next decade give you Normal School principal and State Boards of Education ground to say, “We have changed all that!” Something of the kind certainly should follow the publication of the report of Dr. Canfield’s Committee, to which all that I have said may be regarded as merely an introduction.

## PATRIOTIC SOCIETIES AND THE PUBLIC LIBRARY.

MRS. SARA T. KENNEY,  
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The possibility of reciprocal relations between public libraries and patriotic organizations has probably never received even a tentative recognition from the general public, and perhaps not much more than that from the majority of those who are officially connected with libraries and the organizations to which reference has been made.

As a matter of fact, public libraries and patriotic societies have very much in common. To a certain extent their work is analogous, and when the point of contact is reached and libraries and patriotic societies join forces in an effort to acquire and preserve that "Darlingest thing in history—simple truth," then it may safely be assumed that these organizations are rendering a most important, if not the most important, service possible to their respective constituencies.

For one thing, each is trying to excavate from the dust and ashes of an almost forgotten past certain missing links,—the detached and broken sections of United States history,—and to restore them to their rightful places, that the continuity and significance of the story which means so much to us and to the whole world may stand in its splendid entirety for all time to come. During the centuries which serve as a background for the nation as we know it today, there was no time or strength or opportunity for more than a hand to hand struggle for mere existence, though the unconscious character-building which was one of the necessary factors in bringing the nation to its



birth went quietly and steadily on. Each epochal period was fully occupied with its own affairs, simply that and nothing more, and each in turn left to the future the task, not only of evolving the history of its own special epoch, but of turning on the searchlight,—perhaps it might better be called the re-search light,—of up to date investigation of the motives, the measures and the methods of the makers of a mighty nation. But how can this be done if the necessary material for evidence is non-gettable?—if the names of men and the records of church and state are irretrievably lost? This condition of things seems to be largely true of many parts of the country.

Considerable Connecticut history has been wholly lost because gravestones have disappeared, and town and church records have been destroyed by fire, or through lack of care, have faded and crumbled to dust. What is true of Connecticut is equally true of other states, and lamentably so of certain southern states. These disastrous conditions would not have been possible if patriotic societies and public libraries had to any extent existed in this country 200, or even 100, years ago. The societies would have rescued from destruction every scrap of local history,—this would have been their business then as it is their business today,—and the libraries would have been what they are today, the repositories and preservers of these invaluable records. The patriotic societies are nothing if not historical in their objects and aims, and they are now doing what they can and all they can to secure the missing material, and to the libraries will fall the task of classifying this data, and of putting it into such shape that it may be of use, not merely to the student of history but also to the veriest tyro in scholarship who may still have a lingering notion

that it is a duty he owes his ancestors to know something of the history of the men and of the movement which led up to our cutting loose from Mother England's apron strings and setting up business for ourselves.

It is good New England doctrine that if we take care of the pennies the dollars will care of themselves. So, too, if we rescue and keep tabs on the "small change" of local history, the big events may be trusted to keep themselves conspicuously in the foreground of public interest.

During the Colonial and Revolutionary wars many a man who died upon the field of battle or fell, a martyr to disease, has never been accounted for. Many a small event, apparently valueless in itself, has been lost sight of and forgotten. Had it been kept in sight it might, in itself or in conjunction with other evidence, have proved to be perhaps the beginning, the end, or the central incident in a sequence of very important, but now very much tangled, historical events. If the small bit of evidence in the tangible shape of a name, a record, a letter, a muster roll, a commission, a diary, or something of a similar nature had been preserved, it might have thrown light upon certain obscure points and sufficiently illumined the path of some student of local or national history.

The Hartford Courant recently stated that a gentleman in that city had just discovered a long lost record of the capture of John Winthrop by the Dutch in 1673. Where has that record been in hiding for more than two centuries? Who is responsible for having kept Connecticut waiting 233 years for this interesting information about one of its governors?—where, also, is the key which will unlock the mystery of the line of march of French soldiers under Lafayette across Connecticut from Boston to New York in

1776? At the time there must have been accurate records of the march of this small army of foreign allies, but where are they today? Possibly not in existence. Apparently no one knows the exact route taken by the French soldiers; not all of the places are known where they camped for a night or longer; no one can give the names or the rank of the seventeen Frenchmen who died and were buried at Norwichtown. These are all matters pertaining to the history of our little commonwealth, and should never have been allowed to drop out of sight. Connecticut attics are veritable mines of historical material. Possibly in some one of them these records, for which diligent search for many years has been made, may yet be found.

Daughters of the American Revolution have become very alert and very expert in the business of searching attics for this more or less elusive data. Many have met with gratifying success, unearthing documents which are of almost untold value to themselves and to the society which they represent. I, myself, have had some personal experience in this line which has led me to hail with joy any and every invitation that comes my way to browse about in old-time attics and help myself to such dusty, musty papers as may have an interest for me. A few years ago, while rummaging through an attic in a country town, I noticed two barrels filled to overflowing with what seemed to be old newspapers. In reply to an inquiry as to what was to be done with this particular flotsam and jetsam, I was told it was all worthless trash and was to be taken next day to the paper mill. Firmly convinced that there is "a prize in every package" of waste paper, I asked permission to examine the so-called trash, was told to do so, and if anything was found that I cared for, to keep it, and welcome!

In two minutes the attic floor was strewn with the contents of the barrels, and out of the trash I sifted fully twenty letters written during the strenuous days of the Revolutionary war, some of them by officers and prisoners, and containing information of much value to future writers on the subject of the military situation in New York and its suburbs during the Revolutionary period. La grand prix in this instance was the official roster of the 55th British regiment, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel W. Medowes. This roster, dated at Staten Island the 31st of December, 1776, was evidently the official property of the adjutant of the 55th, and it contains not only the names of the officers and subalterns, but gives the number of British troops in America, states where they are or are to be located and under whose command, and indicates their line of battle and also much other valuable military information, not to mention memoranda of the purchase of a goose, seven bottles of rum and some loaf sugar. These items are suggestive of personal festivities on the part of the adjutant, though they furnish another lamentable instance of a defective record,—no mention being made of hot water, supposedly the link which completes the historical sequence between rum and sugar.

There are attics in Massachusetts as well as in Connecticut, and from one of them a friend recently sent me the original muster roll of Captain Abial Peese's company, dated at New London, 1776. A member of our organization who is thoroughly conversant with the Revolutionary history of the state, tells me that no muster roll of Captain Peese's company is given in "Connecticut Men of the Revolution," and that the time-stained and well-worn document to which I have referred contains the names of twenty-three men hitherto unrecorded in print. To

have discovered in the twinkling of an eye twenty-three brand new Revolutionary ancestors may well be accounted a piece of good fortune, and, "lest we forget" and allow them to again escape us, I have taken the precaution of asking Mr. Godard, in his capacity as state librarian, to become their permanent guardian. It is to be hoped this muster roll will be found useful when "Connecticut Men of the Revolution" is again revised and printed.

The National Society of Daughters of the American Revolution is the largest patriotic hereditary organization in the world. It has a membership of over 50,000, scattered through every one of our states and territories, and it is also liberally represented in Canada, in Hawaii, the Philippines, in France, England, Italy, and even in far-away India. In Connecticut alone there are now forty-seven organized chapters of D. A. R., with a membership of something over 4,000. The Connecticut Society of Colonial Dames includes 274 resident and 286 non-resident members. There are 1,034 members of the Society of S. A. R., 135 Sons of the Revolution, 152 Sons of Colonial Wars, and 167 members of the Society of Mayflower Descendants. Here, then, are at least 6,000 women and men, representing various patriotic organizations, all of whom are, supposedly, greatly interested in every phase of Connecticut history, and in the discovery and conservation of new facts which bear upon obscure historical points. With the help of this army of seekers after light, the public libraries of the state should, and in the near future undoubtedly will, become the guardians of every scrap of printed or written material which concerns the history of our commonwealth. There are 160 public libraries in Connecticut, and I speak from a knowledge of the needs of the organization which I have the honor to



represent, and perhaps for other patriotic societies as well, when I say that it would be a very great assistance to those of us who are engaged in research work, if these libraries would give more attention to the development of their genealogical and historical departments, and so arrange this material that it could be examined at any time by those to whom it would be of special interest. It should be possible for students to do this without encroaching upon the time of the librarians, which belongs to the general public as well as to the specialist. It would also largely promote reciprocity between societies and libraries if the latter would issue an occasional bulletin giving a list of their own "wants," and also full information in regard to up-to-date additions to their genealogical, historical and biographical departments. Not long since I received from the Congressional Library in Washington its "want" list of American Historical Serials. On looking it over, I found the list included three distinct sets of serials which I could easily furnish, and shall take pleasure in doing so. To my surprise I found that the annual reports of the Connecticut state regent, D. A. R., were wanted, and a personal letter from the librarian requested that not only the annual reports, but a complete file of our D. A. R. publications, be sent to the Congressional Library. The New York State Library goes even further than the Congressional Library, for from this source we have been asked to contribute not only what may be called our "publications," but our membership lists, our chapter year books, programs, etc., etc.

At least twenty large libraries in various states from Maine to Ohio have either purchased or asked for the gift of certain books, published by us, and from the facts quoted I infer that the Connecticut Daughters have accomplished what they set out to do,



some really valuable work along the historical lines for which the society was organized. If to the official heads of the various patriotic societies in Connecticut and elsewhere there might be sent by libraries throughout the country an occasional list not only of their own "wants," but of the "helps" they have to offer the societies, it would insure the moral support of each for the other; it would lead to an interchange of opinion, of information, of material, and would thus be greatly to our mutual advantage.

It is doubtless as true of patriotic societies in other states as it is of those in Connecticut, that they are doing what they can and may do, not only to upbuild, but to supplement the usefulness of public libraries. Indeed, right here in Connecticut, and I think in one or two other states also, at least two of the patriotic societies—the Daughters of the American Revolution and the Colonial Dames—have assumed the ownership and are undertaking the management of certain small circulating libraries, sending out specialized collections of books to settlements of foreign citizens and also to schools in rural districts where there are no public libraries.

Each year, as I compile the annual report of the activities of the Connecticut Daughters, I am more and more impressed by the evidences of their helpful interest in the growth and influence of such institutions. In towns where both libraries and chapters of D. A. R. are to be found, it is safe to say that the former are invariably receiving substantial aid from our organizations. As conspicuous examples of the kind of assistance being given, I may state that at least three of the Connecticut chapters have presented to libraries in their respective towns large numbers of books aggregating several hundred volumes, and still another chapter has made itself solid with library

officials by contributing during the past five years something over \$4,000 toward the support of the local free library. Naturally, the usual gifts are books, historical or biographical family records (diaries and commissions), also files of newspapers and magazines, chiefly of local interest. Perhaps these examples of so-called "trash" have but little intrinsic value, but they concern local history, and in that connection are much more valuable to the general public than editions de luxe of "Paradise Lost," or even uncut copies of the Ten Commandments!

Many a librarian has had his, or her, heart made glad by the receipt of these timely, though simple gifts, for in most cases it may truthfully be said that these were things they long had sought, and mourned because they found them not.

I was asked to speak upon the relations between public libraries and patriotic societies. It must be admitted that I have been generous with suggestions, and from my standpoint the most important one is that which concerns the cultivation of a spirit of helpful reciprocity. The Daughters are prepared to admit that among their "needs," as well as their "wants," is the opportunity to get in closer touch with our public libraries, their methods and their historical material, and it is hoped that this will be one of the outcomes of today's mutual exchange of sentiment concerning patriotic effort on the part of both libraries and organizations.

## THE BASIS OF TAXATION FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

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Less than a hundred years ago—considerably less!—any discussion of taxation in this country would doubtless have set as the limitations of government action the necessity of the government itself. In those days we said that the less we knew of government the better; that, almost without qualification, it was a necessary burden and a social and economic evil which we would gladly put away if we could; that it was an accident or incident of fallen humanity; that the higher men rose in the scale of rational and enlightened existence and the purer they became, the less would they need government, and the less would they perceive the existence of government. We would have said that the chief purpose of government was to decide in an apparent conflict of rights, or to prevent a conflict of rights; or we would have summed up its prime and sole ultimate objects in the single sentence that the purpose of government is to secure to all who labor the fruits of their labor.

Today, however, we occupy much broader ground, and, what we really believe to be much more, sane and safe ground—although sometimes we fear that the pendulum in its upward swing may go too far. However, that is a detail of administration rather than a defect in principle. Today we say that government is the agent for the people, established to do whatever the people wish to have done. It is no longer simply the common laborer, like one who kindles our fires, sweeps our offices, cares for our horses and

does the other odd jobs of life—leaving us free to give undivided attention to our more important business; but it is the concrete manifestation of a system of co-operation, by which we do jointly everything which we can do better that way than each working for himself.

This statement, of course, broadens the whole field of taxation.

At present, we may define (and the definition is probably not original) taxes as enforced, equitable and proportional contributions from persons and property, levied by the community, not only for the maintenance of government, but for all public needs and advantage. Taxes are the contributions of the people for things conducive to the common welfare. The citizen pays the tax in order that he may enjoy the benefits of organized society. The points or expressions in these definitions on which we need to lay emphasis are "equitable and proportional contributions," "public needs and advantages," "common welfare," "organized society." In other words, present taxation regards the general benefit and welfare of political society, through which, necessarily, but indirectly, it reaches and advances the individual. It is hardly too much to say that it pays little, and only left-handed, regard to the individual as such.

It may be remarked incidentally that under this view taxation practically has no limitation except the public welfare. Taxation is arranged for the general good and keeps pace with it. There is really no principle whatever by which taxation may be arbitrarily limited. The effort in nearly every state in the Union, possibly in every state, to fix, or to attempt to fix, by statute the limit beyond which taxation shall not go, is a surprising confession of distrust in our general system of government, and of weakness in our system

of levying taxes as that system now is administered. With entire propriety, legislation may limit the amount of indebtedness which a given community may incur (because this is placing an unjust load upon future generations and avoiding personal and present responsibility), and legislation may protect the minority by requiring certain definite majorities in order to secure certain expenditures, or possibly by limiting suffrage with regard to certain forms of tax levies. But with no propriety or safety whatever may legislation curtail the amount which a community may be entirely willing to contribute and expend. Economy, frugality, wisdom in expenditure, integrity, cannot be enforced by law. There is too much character involved in each. Besides, economy and frugality do not necessarily mean small expense or low taxation. Indeed the connection between the two is so slight as to form almost no ground whatever for judgment in this matter. Other factors are so numerous and so controlling that the solution of the problem of wise taxation goes very lame and halting on this factor alone. If taxes are so collected and expended as to make them a good investment, then they may be carried to any extent that individual expenditure may reach. Taxation may be high and yet actually a matter of profit: as where the cost of water works and a sewer system is more than offset by the general rise in property values, the reduction in insurance rates, the decrease in losses by fire, and a lessening of expense attending sickness. Or taxes may be high and gladly sustained, although bringing no money returns, as in the case of great public comfort, convenience or advantage. Just as an individual may be willing to limit his expenditures in many ways in order that he may have attractive grounds about his house, or may own a well-filled library, or may



make a yearly pilgrimage to the metropolis, so the people of a town may, very properly and wisely, make actual sacrifices in personal expenditures in order to secure, through taxation, efficient schools, a public library, a beautiful park, or some of the advantages of the metropolis in a course of public lectures. All these should be considered as rather extraordinary expenditures, to be met by special action—since for all general purposes taxes may be, and ought to be, such as to demand no very great sacrifice; but such extraordinary expenditures ought not to be barred by statutory enactment.

We should keep in mind always that the purpose of taxation is to make possible a product of greater value than the amount collected. This is one of the surest tests of the wisdom and integrity of both levy and outlay. Expenditure should be clearly remunerative. Every possible effort should be made to establish the fact that the amount paid to the tax collector is one of the best investments that citizens can possibly make. Let it be clearly understood that no money is wasted, that public service is just as efficient as that of a private corporation, that schools and libraries and roads and parks are worth all we put into them, and there will be very little hesitancy or dishonesty on the part of the public in tax matters.

It may be well to answer still more emphatically the inquiry as to who are the proper beneficiaries of any collection and expenditure of public revenues. Possibly as communities and states we ought to occupy higher and more altruistic ground, but at present we certainly do very little for individuals, as such. Taxes are levied, not because the tax-payer wants something for himself or for his family, but because the public wants something. The benefits of a tax are not redistributed to each tax-payer according to



the size of his tax receipts. Thousands of dollars for making good roads are contributed by people who never ride over them; a large part of the school tax is paid by those who have no children to enjoy the educational privileges thus secured; parks are built and museums are maintained, and public libraries are opened by people who never visit them. The results of taxation as enjoyed by the individual are not a great and generous giving upon the part of the community to the individual as such. The welfare of the community as a whole is always in mind, and the direct results to any individual are so entirely secondary as to be almost negligible, in the consideration of the whole question of public revenues. In fact, the community may even inflict injury upon the individual for the sake of the community—as when, in the exercise of its right of eminent domain, it takes a homestead from an individual and creates a highway. It is true that reasonable damages are awarded—but time and again monetary damages cannot make good all the suffering which such action involves.

Having laid this broad, yet sound, foundation, we find ourselves faced with the question, What is the purpose and intent of the public library? I can answer this most briefly by saying that what is sought by the public library is precisely what is sought by the public schools, and something more. If we carefully analyze this expression, "something more," we shall find that to education and information the library adds recreation and that rather intangible and indefinable quality which we call culture. But all this comes within the field of legitimate taxation; just as we levy a tax the result of which is to be the utility of good roads, yet make further expenditure for the comfort and pleasure of the traveler by planting shade-trees along the side; just as we create breathing places in a great city

by the purchase of grounds and buildings, and the destruction of the buildings, and then beautify the spot by greensward and shrubbery and flowers; just as we teach the three R's, the so-called fundamentals, in the public schools, and then add to these fundamentals instruction which develops and directs both ethic and æsthetic taste, and is conducive to sound morals.

This brings us immediately to a most important and fundamental view of the public library, the only view-point from which we can see it in true perspective and in true relations, the only position which we can assume with any safety whatever when we discuss the question of public taxation: and that is that the public library must be recognized and advocated as an integral part of the public and free system of education. When we have thus determined we are on absolutely safe ground. All public education rests back upon the constitution and laws of each state. No commonwealth has expressed the fundamental reasons for public education better than has the state of Massachusetts. Its constitution (Chapter V., Section 2,) declares that "Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties, and these, depending upon spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country and among the different orders of the people; it shall be the duty of legislatures and magistrates to . . . cherish the interests of public schools and grammar schools in the towns." It was with this thought in mind that our fathers and our fathers' fathers planned the scheme of general advancement and enlightenment which in its scope and in its success has far

outrun the limits of the initial thought, yet has grandly fulfilled all their early hopes.

It was the Puritan theory of life that lay at the bottom of the whole system of popular education in New England. Crude indeed as was their thought of individual responsibility, which always calls for individual intelligence; hampered as they were by custom and prejudice in following even their own ideals, yet they broke new ground and sowed new seed, and under God the increase is our own. It was a sort of instinct of the race, that quick insight which has marked the American people at every stage of their progress, that ready grasp upon all the details of a practical movement which is so peculiarly characteristic of us—it was this temperament that early appreciated the necessity of general education under public control and supervision if we were to be successful in building a free state in the wilderness. This educational system is not something that has been thrust upon us by a few designing people; it is not a hobby on which some small segment of the public may ride; it is the magnificent result of steady growth under steady and intelligent demand. It is this growth and this sane and intelligent demand which now includes the public library as an integral part of the system. It is a system organized by the state, maintained by the state, and the wisest and surest means of self-preservation possessed by the state—all of which marks it as a public system, sharply differentiated from any and every form of private instruction.

The state accepts and maintains this educational system quite as much through a sense of necessity as through choice. A free republic without a system of public education common to all would be short-lived indeed, because the intelligence and morality of its

citizens are its only safeguards, its only promises of perpetuity, its only sureties of endurance. The act of the state in education is a selfish act; an act grounded in enlightened selfishness, it may be, nevertheless, grounded in selfishness in the very best sense of a much abused word. It is simply an act of self-protection. It may well accept as the best expression of its reason for being the statement in Washington's farewell address, that "in proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

We must not forget that the American people are their own masters, for good or for ill; since freedom means freedom for self injury and cannot mean less. That this may be a mastery for good and not for ill comes this general and public and imperative demand for general public enlightenment and intelligence. It is entirely true that the great mass of our people are, and always will be, a simple folk, and let us be thankful for this. They are still the common people—as I have so often said, the most uncommon common people this world has ever seen. It will always be necessary, therefore, that our civil policy be made as simple as possible, in order that it may be easily understood by those charged with its enforcement, as well as by those on whom its provisions may fall. But that will be a weak and unstable government that must in all respects be kept within the easy reach and ready touch of an ignorant people. "That which makes a good constitution," said William Penn, "must also keep it—men of wisdom and of virtue, qualities which, because they descend not with inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." The proposition that only an enlightened and an intelligent people can make self-government a success is so self evident as to make argument but

a vain repetition of empty words. And yet we know that the public school side of our system of free public education is as yet only able to secure five years' schooling for the average child in this country—an all too narrow portal through which to enter upon successful citizenship. There is an imperative demand, then, for the establishment and the development and for the wise administration of that other branch of our system of free public education which we know as the public library.

We must understand clearly that the beneficent result of this system of education, bifurcated if you choose to call it so, is just as possible to the son of the peasant as to the son of the president; just as helpful to the blacksmith as to the barrister, to the farmer as to the philosopher; and in its possibilities and in its helpfulness is a constant blessing to all and through all, and is needed by all alike. By what may be termed an instinct of humanity, all governments from the very earliest day, even before the coming of modern civilization, have recognized that good citizens are more to be desired than great cities, and that to place wisdom and integrity in the service of the state is better than to gather silver and gold. No nation has forgotten this and escaped destruction. No nation is in existence today that does not owe its present vitality to a wise observation of this natural law.

The most worthy mind, that which is of most value to the world, is the well-informed mind which is public and large. Only through the development of such, both as leaders and as followers, can all classes be brought into an understanding of each other, can we preserve true republican equality, can we avoid that insulation and seclusion which are unwholesome and unworthy of true American manhood. The state



has no resources at all comparable with its citizens. Richness of soil, favor of climate, vast deposits of the ores of commerce, miles of densest forests—all these are of light weight when placed in the scales over and against a virtuous, intelligent, industrious people—all these are simply the means which minister to the well-being and happiness of such a people. No development of material resources can be for an instant weighed against the development of the resources of a state as expressed in the capacities and powers of its citizens. A man is worth to himself just what he is capable of enjoying, and he is worth to the state just what he is capable of imparting. These form an exact and true measure of every man. The greatest positive strength and value, therefore, must always be associated with the greatest positive and practical development of every faculty and power.

This, then, is the true basis of taxation for public libraries. Such a tax is subject to all the canons of usual taxation, and may be defended, and must be defended, upon precisely the same grounds as we defend the tax for the public schools. Only as we place the public library squarely upon this foundation, and entirely within the lines of a great scheme of public education, established for the general reasons and purposes just outlined, can we really defend it at all. Once this position is taken and accepted, we are safe against all comers. And this will make exceedingly simple and plain the general problem of administration of the public library. The community will soon come to understand that their relations to the library are precisely like their relations to the other branch of the system of public education, the public schools; that if they desire any change in administration it must be found in the usual way, through a change of



directors at the proper time and in the proper manner. The tax-payer will no more think of insisting that because he is a tax-payer he has a right to demand a certain book or certain books through the public library, than he will think that as a tax-payer he has a right to demand the instruction of his children in a specific branch or in specific branches which the directors of the public schools have not yet included in the curriculum. There will come also to the librarian the same sense of security that comes to the teacher of the public schools. While each branch of our system of education is wisely under its own directors, a differentiation which ought to be continued, the possible co-operation between all officers and workers in the two at least equal parts of this great field is multiplied indefinitely by a correct understanding of the relations and possible co-ordination of these parts.

Every teacher and every librarian, therefore, every director of school or library, every sincerely patriotic citizen, ought to adopt at once as a fundamental proposition the statement that the public school and the public library are integral parts of one great system of public and free education. This makes our educational future absolutely sure for all the years to come.

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